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ABSTRACT

Essays on cooperative learning focus on the use of this strategy to address the special needs of linguistically and culturally diverse student groups in elementary and secondary education. The volume contains several essays on theory, principles, and techniques of cooperative learning and a series of model instructional units for a variety of grade levels and subject areas. These include: "Cooperative Learning for Students from Diverse Language Backgrounds: An Introduction" (Daniel D. Holt); "The Structural Approach to Cooperative Learning" (Spencer Kagan); "Cooperative Learning and Second Language Acquisition" (Mary McGroarty); "Principles of Cooperative Learning for Language and Content Gains" (Spencer Kagan, Mary McGroarty); "Using Cooperative Learning at the Elementary Level" (Corine Madrid); "Using Cooperative Learning at the Secondary Level" (Barbara Chips); "Model Unit for K-1 Language Arts/Social Studies" (Carole Cooper, Angie Gilligan); "Model Unit for Grades 2-3 Language Arts" (Sue Heredia-Arriaga, Sue Gonzales); "Model Unit for Grade 4 Social Studies" (Sue Heredia-Arriaga, Mary Alvarez-Greeson); "Model Unit for Secondary Level Intermediate ESL" (Carole Cromwell, Linda Sasser); and "Model Unit for Grade 10 History-Social Science" (Daniel D. Holt, Diane Wallace). A "Coaching Instrument for Cooperative Learning," a checklist for implementing cooperative learning principles, is appended. (Contains 133 references.) (MSE)

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Daniel D. Holt, Editor

COOPERATIVE LEARNING

A Response to Linguistic and Cultural Diversity

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Language in Education

Theory and Practice

Cooperative Learning

A Response to Linguistic and Cultural Diversity

Daniel D. Holt, Editor

A Publication of CAL *Center for Applied Linguistics*

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Theory and Practice

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Notes

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[2]The opinions expressed in this publication are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of the California Department of Education.

1

Cooperative Learning for Students from Diverse Language Backgrounds: An Introduction

Daniel D. Holt
Bilingual Education Office
California Department of Education

All for one, one for all.

—ALEXANDRE DUMAS

The value of cooperative learning has been recognized throughout human history. Organizing individuals to work in support of one another and putting the interests of the group ahead of one's own are abilities that have characterized some of the most successful people of our time. Group learning, with its roots in ancient tribal customs, has traditionally been a part of educational practice. Its effectiveness has been documented through hundreds of research studies (e.g., Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1986; Kagan, this volume; Slavin, 1988). It is now widely recognized as one of the most promising practices in the field of education.

During much of its history, cooperative learning methodology developed in settings where very few, if any, of the students came from non-English language backgrounds. When many of the originators of cooperative learning emphasized the importance of heterogeneity in forming groups, it is doubtful that they envisioned a classroom where non-English speakers and native English speakers were members of the same group. Yet, such a classroom is becoming the rule, rather than the exception, especially in California's public schools. According to 1990 figures, approximately 1,483,036, or 31% of all elementary and secondary students in California come from a home where a language other than English is spoken. More than 861,000 of these students were identified as limited-English-proficient (LEP) (California Department of Education, 1990b). California is rapidly becoming a state where no ethnic group has majority status. It is estimated that by the year 2000, California's population will be 44.7% White, 35.2% Hispanic, 10.8% Asian, 7.8% Black, and 1.5% "Other" (Olsen & Chen, 1988).

This cultural and linguistic diversity has profound implications for the field of education. The learning climate of the classroom is affected by the nature of the interactions among students. In a culturally diverse classroom, students

reflect a variety of attitudes about one another, a variety of expectations of one another's ability, and various styles of behavior. Without structures that promote positive interactions and strategies for improving relationships, students may remain detached from one another, unable to benefit from the resources their peers represent. Teachers and students need strategies that manage cultural and linguistic diversity in positive ways, strategies that channel peer influence into a positive force for improving school performance. Further, to reach students from diverse cultural backgrounds, teachers need multiple alternatives to the prevalent pattern in which teachers do most of the talking and directing in the classroom (see McGroarty, this volume). This volume is about one strategy, cooperative learning, that holds great promise for helping educators transform diversity into a vital resource for promoting students' acquisition of challenging academic subjects.

In this volume, the phrase, "students from diverse language backgrounds," refers to three categories of students. One group is English only (EO); that is, the students have learned English as their primary language. Another group is limited English proficient (LEP); the students have a primary language other than English and are limited in their English proficiency. A final category is fluent English proficient (FEP); these students have a primary language other than English but are fully proficient in English.

When students from these categories are placed in the same classroom, their linguistic and cultural diversity creates challenges for teachers. Effective responses to this diversity include strategies that link the students in mutually supportive ways, strategies that provide the students with multiple, varied, and equal opportunities to acquire content and language. Learning cooperatively in teams where "all work for one" and "one works for all" gives students the emotional and academic support that helps them to persevere against the many obstacles they face in school. Not only does cooperative teamwork give students additional motivation to stay in school and improve academically; it also helps them learn the skills that they will need for the increasingly interactive work places of the future.

Assumptions Underlying this Volume

Cooperative learning is an essential element of, not a substitute for, effective programs for LEP students.

Recent theory and research on the role of language and culture in schooling suggest that LEP students' success in school depends on the effective coordination of key factors in the educational process (California Department of Education, 1982). Such factors include improving curriculum content; supporting the students' primary language and culture; promoting positive relationships between students and staff, as well as among students themselves; and enhan-

cing communication and interaction between educators and parents. Cooperative learning is a key strategy for LEP students because of its potential to enhance interactions among students, as well as dramatically improve their academic achievement (Kagan, 1986). It must not be regarded as a substitute for, or a shortcut around, a comprehensive program for LEP students. A comprehensive program should be planned with information derived from contemporary theory and current research findings related to educating LEP students. Cooperative learning becomes a key strategy for achieving the goals of programs that are well designed and properly staffed. Readers should consult related literature for examples of good instructional programming for LEP students. (See, for example, California Department of Education, 1981, 1986.)

By integrating what is known about cooperative learning with what is known about effective programming for LEP students, educators can enhance both fields.

The fields of cooperative learning and language minority education have developed largely independent of one another. Teachers and linguists have developed interactive approaches to language teaching without access to the theory and practice underlying cooperative learning. Similarly, cooperative learning educators have developed collaborative structures without the benefit of knowledge about second language acquisition or bilingualism. This volume has brought together educators from both fields to merge the best of their respective theories and methodologies in order to improve educational outcomes for all students.

To educate students from diverse language backgrounds, teachers need to develop approaches that represent an integration of cooperative learning methods and approaches drawn from language minority education. This volume provides illustrations of how this integration can be implemented at the elementary and secondary school levels.

Teachers are best served by selecting what they regard as the finest from the variety of cooperative learning methods and creating their own eclectic approach.

The term "cooperative learning" has a variety of meanings. Among the leaders in this field, there is a diversity of views regarding its definition, underlying philosophy, essential characteristics, and methodology. (See overview of cooperative learning approaches in Kagan, 1986.) Just as cooperative learning capitalizes on student heterogeneity, this volume assumes that effective teachers create their own cooperative strategies from what they learn from the many excellent contributors to this field. There is no one best cooperative method. Rather, cooperative methods grow out of the modifications and adaptations made by professional educators in response to the unique demands of their own teaching situation. This creative process is reflected in the cooperative

activities and lessons described in Chapters 5-11 of this volume. These chapters were made possible by teachers whose professional spirit motivated them to risk failure as they tried cooperative learning strategies with students from diverse language backgrounds. Their success validates the work of other pioneers in cooperative learning, those who saw diversity as an asset to the learning process.

Improving the schooling of students from diverse language backgrounds rests in part on educators' determination to design innovations based on their analysis of relevant, up-to-date theory and research.

Although cooperative learning does not have a long history of experience with students from diverse language backgrounds, its use with these students rests on a strong theoretical foundation supported by research findings. The authors of this volume relied on such a foundation and on their own experiences in developing their chapters. The conclusions they draw in this document were not clearly envisioned before the writing of the volume. The final result emerged over time, fused through the collaboration of the authors, field reviewers, and California Department of Education staff.

This book not only documents what is currently known, but urges further research and development to improve the use of cooperative learning with students from diverse language backgrounds. Rather than being a final statement, this volume is an initial effort to describe how cooperative learning can be used with students from diverse language backgrounds. It is through such developmental efforts that educators can move from the status quo to innovative solutions to the problems encountered by students in our schools.

Genesis of this Volume

This book is based on a long history of leadership by the Bilingual Education Office (BEO) in developing documents on the education of language minority students, beginning in 1981 with *Schooling and Language Minority Students: A Theoretical Framework* (California Department of Education, 1981). This and other publications described below represent BEO's effort to provide educators with the most up-to-date information in the field of language minority education.

In 1982, BEO published its first reference to cooperative learning in *Basic Principles for the Education of Language Minority Students: An Overview* (California Department of Education, 1982). The research cited in that publication strongly supported the potential of cooperative learning for producing dramatic academic, language, and social gains for all students, but especially for minority background students.

The 1986 BEO publication, *Beyond Language: Social and Cultural Factors in Schooling Language Minority Students* (California Department of Education, 1986), in a chapter written by Spencer Kagan, identified cooperative learning as a key

strategy for instructing minority background students effectively. In recent years, interest in cooperative learning has grown dramatically. Districts have offered extensive staff development opportunities for educators to learn how to use group work to improve student access to the core curriculum. Similarly, there have been significant improvements in what educators know about effective practices for educating LEP students. However, there has been only limited integration of cooperative learning methods with other effective educational practices for LEP students. Development of knowledge in cooperative learning and improvements in schooling LEP students have generally operated independently of one another. The purpose of this book is to illustrate how these instructional efforts can be fused in order to accelerate the learning of all students in our schools.

Process of Development

BEO staff began the preparation of this volume by meeting with teachers, curriculum specialists, program managers, and researchers to identify the type of information needed to use cooperative learning strategies with students from diverse language backgrounds. Authors were then selected and writing began. The final manuscripts were submitted to the California Department of Education for internal review and editing.

A collaborative process was used in writing the various sections of the volume. Each chapter went through at least three drafts before the final version was written. The authors reviewed and made suggestions on each other's drafts in order to coordinate the content and unify the volume. In addition, drafts of the chapters were critiqued by a group of more than 30 field reviewers made up of classroom teachers, program directors, and university-level teacher trainers and researchers.

During the development of the drafts, several meetings were held in which the authors had face-to-face discussions about their chapters. Selected field reviewers also attended these meetings and made suggestions for revisions. The field reviewers, as potential users of the volume, kept the needs of practitioners foremost in the authors' minds. This open exchange of views led to many significant improvements in the overall design of the volume, as well as the individual chapters.

Organization of the Volume

Part I (Chapters 1-4) provides the basic theoretical foundation for the activities and model units in Part II (Chapters 5-11). In Chapter 2, Spencer Kagan provides a description of many of the cooperative strategies or structures that are used throughout the volume. Cooperative structures may be used with almost any subject matter, at a wide range of grade levels, and at various

points in a lesson plan. Kagan provides an overview of selected structures and delineates appropriate academic and social objectives for each. His structural approach supports the value of cooperative learning experiences in helping students from diverse language backgrounds to learn the thinking, communication, and social skills necessary to succeed in an increasingly interdependent world.

In Chapter 3, Mary McGroarty summarizes recent theory and research in second language acquisition, illustrating how cooperative group work enhances both second language acquisition and subject-matter mastery. McGroarty describes the theoretical harmony in the merging of methods in cooperative learning with strategies for language acquisition. The challenge for teachers lies in (a) adapting cooperative learning strategies to the special demands of their students and instructional settings and (b) balancing cooperative learning activities with other instructional formats so that students will have access to the broadest possible range of learning environments.

Chapter 4, co-authored by Kagan and McGroarty, is an example of the creative power of a cooperative effort. The writers decided to co-author this chapter after discussing at length their conflicting views on how they could portray in their individual chapters the complementary relationship between cooperative learning and language development strategies. By persevering through conflict, they experienced higher order thinking and greater cohesion as a cooperative team. Chapter 4, then, represents two important phenomena: (a) principles for educators to follow in using cooperative learning with students from diverse language backgrounds and (b) the creative synergy that emerges from a successful cooperative effort.

Part II provides applications of the theory, research, and principles found in Part I. In Chapter 5, Corine Madrid outlines the needs of elementary school LEP students and suggests a number of cooperative structures and activities appropriate for elementary level lessons in language arts and history/social science. Chapter 6, by Barbara Chips, describes the challenges faced by secondary school LEP students and illustrates cooperative structures and activities for language arts and other content areas.

Classroom teachers and resource specialists wrote Chapters 7 through 11, which contain five model units with detailed lesson plans that describe the use of cooperative learning methods in two content areas, English language arts and history/social science. Three units are written for elementary (K-6) and two units for secondary levels (7-12).

Goals of the Volume

This volume was developed to help achieve the following goals:

a. To improve the instruction of students from diverse language backgrounds;

b. To provide content for staff development related to educating students from diverse language backgrounds; and

c. To promote the development of a positive academic and social support system for all students in school.

The first goal is emphasized because of the need to create better learning opportunities for students in public schools, especially for those who come from minority backgrounds. Such students will benefit from innovations like cooperative learning that have been shown to improve academic achievement dramatically.

The second goal reflects the need for long-term staff development to ensure that teachers have access to the extensive knowledge base available in the fields of cooperative learning and language minority education. The volume contains extensive information, both theoretical and practical, that can be used in formal training sessions as well as in follow-up activities in the classroom.

The third goal is of primary importance for making schooling more productive and enjoyable for all students. Based on what is known about the power of cooperation, educators can be confident of the value of teamwork in motivating students to come to school, stay there, and complete their assignments. Most importantly, cooperative learning can create a positive environment in which students from various ethnic and linguistic backgrounds can help and receive help from each other.

This volume suggests many different ways to use team work to accelerate the learning of students from diverse language backgrounds. Readers will find activities that can be used during 5-minute, 50-minute, or 5-week periods of time. Students will benefit from participation in both short-term and long-term experiences in cooperative teams. However, being a member of a team that stays together over an extended period of time may provide students some of the greatest potential for language, academic, and social growth. A cooperative team may stay intact for an entire academic year or even for several successive years.[1]

Perhaps the optimal cooperative environment is created by teachers who use a variety of teams for various purposes. For example, a student might be a member of several teams: one for short-term, intermittent purposes, such as planning an outing for the class; another for specific content areas like those in the model units in this volume; and still another as a home team or base group that meets on a regular basis to deal with members' personal and academic needs (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1988). In order to add stability and support to the students' school experience, the membership of the base group would remain constant for a semester, a year, or as long as practicable.

Long-term, consistent participation in the same team ensures that individual students will have peers who are concerned about their success in school. Sustained team work in heterogeneous groups helps students acquire

the skills necessary to work effectively with people of different ethnic, racial, and linguistic backgrounds. When conflict arises among team members, students need to learn how to resolve it and grow from it, rather than try to move to another team, get rid of the "problem" member, or pretend that the conflict is not there. Participation on a home team or base group enables students to view conflict as a positive force, moving the team members to a higher level of individual maturity and group cohesion.

Cooperative learning has become popular for many reasons. It adds variety to the teacher's repertoire. It helps teachers manage large classes of students with diverse needs. It improves academic achievement and social development. It prepares students for increasingly interactive workplaces. However, one of its most powerful, long-lasting effects may be in making school a more humane place to be by giving students stable, supportive environments for learning. This volume is written with the hope that increasing numbers of students will experience the personal and academic growth that comes through learning, persevering, and maturing with others.

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2

The Structural Approach to Cooperative Learning[1]

Spencer Kagan
Resources for Teachers

This volume focuses on cooperative learning as a significant way to promote the academic achievement, language acquisition, and social development of students of limited-English proficiency (LEP), especially in classrooms where LEP students are learning with fluent-English-proficient (FEP) and English-only (EO) students. Although cooperative learning is beneficial in improving outcomes for all students, it is particularly helpful to LEP students. (For a comprehensive analysis of the importance of cooperative learning in responding to cultural and linguistic diversity, see Kagan, 1985.) In this chapter, the structural approach to cooperative learning will be presented along with a description of a variety of cooperative structures. The structures are illustrated in Chapers 5-11.

Although this chapter focuses on the structural approach, readers may wish to consider other successful approaches to cooperative learning: for example, *Learning Together* (Johnson & Johnson, 1987) and curriculum specific packages, such as *Finding Out/Descubrimiento* (DeAvila & Duncan, 1980) or *Using Student Team Learning* (Slavin, 1986).

The Structural Approach

The structural approach to cooperative learning is based on the creation, analysis, and systematic application of structures or content-free ways of organizing social interaction in the classroom. Structures usually involve a series of steps, with proscribed behavior at each step. An important cornerstone of the approach is the distinction between "structures" and "activities."

To illustrate, teachers can design many excellent cooperative activities, such as making a team mural or a quilt. Such activities almost always have a specific content-bound objective and thus cannot be used to deliver a range of academic content. In contrast, structures may be used repeatedly with almost any subject matter, at a wide range of grade levels, and at various points in a lesson plan. To illustrate further, if teachers who are new to cooperative learning learn five activities, they might well report back after a week, "Those worked well, but what should we do next week?" If, instead, teachers learn five structures,

they could meaningfully include cooperative learning in lessons all year to further the academic progress of students in any subject matter.

Accordingly, structures can be combined to form "multistructural" lessons in which each structure, or building block, provides a learning experience upon which subsequent structures expand, leading toward predetermined academic, cognitive, and social objectives.

Competitive Versus Cooperative Structures

In teaching, new structures continue to be developed, and old structures continue to evolve. They are based on distinct philosophies of education and lead to variations in types of learning and cooperation, in student roles and communication patterns, in teacher roles, and in evaluation (Kagan, 1985). There are several dozen distinct cooperative structures, some with adaptations, such as the half dozen major variations on Jigsaw (Kagan, 1991). Among the most well known structures are Jigsaw (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978); Student-Teams Achievement-Divisions, or STAD (Slavin, 1986); Think-Pair-Share (Lyman, 1987); and Group-Investigation (Sharan & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1980).

One of the most common structures teachers use is a competitive structure called Whole-Class Question-Answer (see Fig. 1). In this arrangement, students vie for the teacher's attention and praise, creating negative interdependence among them. In other words, when the teacher calls on one student, the others lose their chance to answer; a failure by one student to give a correct response increases the chances for other students to receive attention and praise. Thus, students are set against each other, creating poor social relations and establishing peer norms against achievement.

Fig. 1. Whole-Class Question-Answer

1. The teacher asks a question.

2. Students who wish to respond raise their hands.

3. The teacher calls on one student.

4. The student attempts to state the correct answer.

In contrast to the competitive Whole-Class Question-Answer structure stands Numbered Heads Together, a simple four-step cooperative structure (see Fig. 2). Numbered Heads includes teams, positive interdependence, and individual accountability, all of which lead to cooperative interaction among students. Positive interdependence is built into the structure; if any student knows the answer, the ability of each student is increased. Individual accountability is also

built in; all the helping is confined to the heads-together step. Students know that once a number is called, each student is on his or her own. The high achievers share answers because they know their number might not be called, and they want their team to do well. The lower achievers listen carefully because they know their number might be called. Numbered Heads Together is quite a contrast to Whole-Class Question-Answer in which only the high achievers need participate and the low achievers can (and often do) tune out.

Fig. 2. Numbered Heads Together

1. **The teacher has students number off within each group, so that each student has a number: 1, 2, 3, or 4.**
2. **The teacher asks a question.**
3. **The teacher tells the students to "put their heads together" in their groups to make sure that everyone on the team knows the answer.**
4. **The teacher calls a number (1, 2, 3, or 4), and students with that number can raise their hands to respond.**

Why So Many Structures?

As mentioned earlier, there are a number of different structures, as well as variations among them. This variety is necessary because the structures have different functions or domains of usefulness.

To illustrate, we can contrast two similar simple structures, Group Discussion and Three-Step Interview (see Fig. 3). In Group Discussion, there is no individual accountability; in some groups, some individuals may participate little or not at all. Also, there is no assurance that team members will listen to each other; in some groups, all the individuals may be talking while none are listening. Further, if one person at a time is speaking in each group, one fourth of the class is involved in language production.

In contrast, in Three-Step Interview each person must produce and receive language. There is equal participation and individual accountability for listening, because in the third step each student shares what he or she has heard. For the first two steps students interact in pairs, so one half rather than one fourth of the class is involved in language production at any one time.

Thus, there are profound differences between apparently similar simple cooperative structures. Group Discussion is the structure of choice for brainstorming and for reaching group consensus; Three-Step Interview is far better for developing language and listening skills as well as for promoting equal

Fig. 3. Group Discussion Versus Three-Step Interview

Group Discussion	*Three-Step Interview*
Steps in the Process:	
1. The teacher asks a low-consensus question.	1. Students form two pairs within their teams of four and conduct a one-way interview in pairs.
2. Students talk it over in groups.	2. Students reverse roles: interviewers become the interviewees.
	3. Students roundrobin: each student takes a turn sharing information learned in the interview.
Characteristics:	
• Unequal participation	• Equal participation
• Not all participate	• All participate
• No individual accountability	• Individual accountability
• 1/4 of class talking at a time	• 1/2 of class talking at a time.

participation. When teachers are aware of the effects of different structures, they can design lessons with predetermined outcomes.

Turning to more complex structures, the differences are even greater. For example, Co-op Co-op (Kagan, 1985) is a 10-step structure in which students in teams produce a project that fosters the learning of students in other teams. Each student has a mini-topic, and each team makes a distinct contribution toward the class goal. The structure involves higher level thinking skills, including analysis and synthesis of materials. Like all structures, however, Co-op Co-op is content-free. For example, when it is used in university classrooms, students may work 10 weeks to complete a sophisticated audiovisual presentation; in a kindergarten classroom, a project might culminate in a 20-minute presentation in which each student on a team shares with the class one or two new facts learned about the team animal. Whether the projects are brief or extended, the content complex or simple, the students in kindergarten or college, the 10 steps of Co-op Co-op remain the same.

Likewise, different structures are useful for distinct objectives such as teambuilding, classbuilding, communication building, mastery, and concept development. Among those structures used for mastery, there are further important distinctions. For example, Color-Coded Co-op Cards are designed for efficient memory of basic facts; Pairs Check is effective for mastery of basic skills; and Numbered Heads Together is designed for review or checking for comprehension. A list of major structures and their functions is presented in

Figure 4. (See Kagan, 1991, for details about the structures in the figure as well as others.)

Structures differ also in their usefulness in the academic, cognitive, and social domains, as well as in their usefulness in different steps of a lesson plan. The following are the most important considerations when determining the domain of usefulness of a structure:

1. What kind of cognitive and academic development does it foster?
2. What kind of social development does it foster?
3. Where in a lesson plan does it best fit?

To illustrate the distinct domains of usefulness of different structures, we can contrast Color-Coded Co-op Cards and Three-Step Interview (see Fig. 5). Color-Coded Co-op Cards work well for convergent thinking (knowledge-level thinking), such as when the academic goal is memorization of many distinct facts; the Co-op Cards promote helping and are most often used for practice. Three-Step Interview does not serve any of those goals well. In contrast, Three-Step Interview is most often used for divergent thinking (evaluation, analysis, synthesis, and application-level thinking), such as when the academic goal is to promote thought as part of participation in the scientific inquiry process or as part of the writing process; Three-Step Interview promotes listening skills and serves well as an anticipatory set for the lesson ("What would you most like to learn about . . . ?" or "What do you now know about . . . ?") or to obtain closure ("What is the most important thing you have learned about . . . ?" or "If we had more time, what aspect of . . . would you like to study further?").

Because each structure has distinct domains of usefulness and can more efficiently reach some but not other cognitive, academic, and social goals, the efficient design of lessons involves using a variety of structures, each chosen for the goals it best accomplishes. Reliance on any one structure limits the cognitive and social learning of students.

Fig. 4. Overview of Selected Structures

Structure	Brief description	Functions (Academic and social)
	TEAM BUILDING	
Roundrobin	Each student in turn shares something with his or her teammates.	Expressing ideas and opinions, creating stories. Equal participation, getting acquainted with teammates.
	CLASS BUILDING	
Corners	Each student moves to a corner of the room representing a teacher-determined alternative. Students discuss within corners, then listen to and paraphrase ideas from other corners.	Seeing alternative hypotheses, values, problem-solving approaches. Knowing and respecting different points of view, meeting classmates.
	COMMUNICATION BUILDING	
Match Mine	Students attempt to match the arrangement of objects on a grid of another student using oral communication only.	Vocabulary development. Communication skills, role-taking ability.
	MASTERY	
Numbered Heads Together	The teacher asks a question; students consult to make sure everyone knows the answer. Then one student is called upon to answer.	Review, checking for knowledge, comprehension. Tutoring.
Color-Coded Co-op Cards	Students memorize facts using a flash card game. The game is structured so that there is a maximum probability of success at each step, moving from short-term to long-term memory. Scoring is based on improvement.	Memorizing facts. Helping, praising.
Pairs Check	Students work in pairs within groups of four. Within pairs students alternate—one solves a problem while the other coaches. After every two problems, the pair checks to see if they have the same answers as the other pair.	Practicing skills. Helping, praising.

Fig. 4 (continued). Overview of Selected Structures

Structure	Brief description	Functions (Academic and social)
	CONCEPT DEVELOPMENT	
Three-Step Interview	Students interview each other in pairs, first one way, then the other. Students each share with the group information they learned in the interview.	Sharing personal information such as hypotheses, reactions to a poem, conclusions from a unit. Participation, listening.
Think-Pair-Share	Students think to themselves on a topic provided by the teacher; they pair up with another student to discuss it; they then share their thoughts with the class.	Generating and revising hypotheses, inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, application. Participation, involvement.
Team Word-Webbing	Students write simultaneously on a piece of chart paper, drawing main concepts, supporting elements, and bridges representing the relation of ideas in a concept.	Analysis of concepts into components, understanding multiple relations among ideas, differentiating concepts. Role-taking.
	MULTIFUNCTIONAL	
Roundtable	Each student in turn writes one answer as a paper and pencil are passed around the group. With Simultaneous Roundtable, more than one pencil and paper are used at once.	Assessing prior knowledge, practicing skills, recalling information, creating cooperative art. Team-building, participation of all.
Inside-Outside Circle	Students stand in pairs in two concentric circles. The inside circle faces out; the outside circle faces in. Students use flash cards or respond to teacher questions as they rotate to each new partner.	Checking for understanding, review, processing, helping. Tutoring, sharing, meeting classmates.
Partners	Students work in pairs to create or master content. They consult with partners from other teams. They then share their products or understanding with the other partner pair in their team.	Mastery and presentation of new material, concept development. Presentation and communication skills.
Jigsaw	Each student on the team becomes an "expert" on one topic by working with members from other teams assigned to the same expert topics. Upon returning to their teams, each one in turn teaches the group; and students are all assessed on all aspects of the topic.	Acquisition and presentation of new material, review, informed debate. Interdependence, status equalization.
Co-op Co-op	Students work in groups to produce a particular group product to share with the whole class; each student makes a particular contribution to the group.	Learning and sharing complex material, often with multiple sources; evaluation; application; analysis; synthesis. Conflict resolution, presentation skills.

Fig. 5. Contrasting Domains of Usefulness

Domain	*Color-Coded Co-op Cards*	*Three-Step Interview*
Academic and cognitive	**Memory of basic facts and information**	**Evaluation, analysis, synthesis, application**
Social	**Helping, praising**	**Listening**
Steps in lesson plan	**Practice**	**Anticipatory set, closure**

The Multistructural Lesson

A cooperative learning teacher fluent in many structures can competently move in and out of them as needed to reach certain learning objectives. Such a "multistructural lesson," for example, might begin with content-related class-building using a Line-up, followed by content-related teambuilding using Round Table. The lesson might then move into Direct Instruction, followed by Partners for information input. To check for comprehension and emphasize key concepts, the teacher would shift into Numbered Heads Together. Next might come Group Discussion or Team Word-Webbing for concept development, followed by a Cooperative Project. No one structure is most efficient for all objectives, so the most efficient way of reaching all objectives in a lesson is a multistructural lesson. This volume provides many illustrations of how teachers can employ a number of structures to achieve a wide range of objectives. (Also see Andrini, 1989, and Stone, 1989, for additional examples of multistructural lessons.)

Whether the objective for the learner is to create a poem, write an autobiography, or learn the relationship of experimental and theoretical probability, the teacher's ability to use a range of structures increases the range of learning experiences for students, resulting in lesson designs that are richer in the academic, cognitive, and social domains. By building on the outcomes of the previous structures, the teacher is able to orchestrate dynamic learning experiences for students.

All Together, a Structure a Month

For schools and districts conducting training for cooperative learning, there are advantages in the structural approach. Whereas it can be quite overwhelming for teachers to master "cooperative learning," it is a relatively easy task to master one structure at a time.

Many schools and districts have adopted a "structure of the month" strategy in which site-level trainers introduce the structure, provide demonstration lessons, and lead participants in planning how to adapt the structure to their own classroom needs. When many teachers at a site are all working to learn the same structure, there is a common base of experience, promoting formal and informal collegial coaching and support.

Note

[1]Kagan, S. (1989). The structural approach to cooperative learning. *Educational Leadership, 47*(4), 12-15. Reprinted with permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. Copyright © 1989 by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. All rights reserved.

3
Cooperative Learning and Second Language Acquisition

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Recent research and experience in language classrooms have confirmed the value of small-group activity in expanding student exposure to a new language and in furnishing many more opportunities to practice the language naturally than are available in traditional whole-group instruction (Davidson & Worsham, 1992; Sharan & Sharan, 1992; see also Chaudron, 1988, and van Lier, 1988, for comprehensive discussion). Academic skills are also enhanced through use of cooperative techniques in linguistically heterogeneous classrooms (Jacob & Mattson, 1987). Student participation in pair and small-group work following cooperative principles facilitates second language acquisition along with subject matter mastery (McGroarty, 1991); hence educators concerned with building students' second language skills need to know more about these techniques in order to judge when and how they can be used most effectively.

This chapter aims to summarize recent theory and research related to group work in second language learning in order to provide a foundation for understanding the advantages and limitations of cooperative work in fostering second language acquisition in school settings. With such a foundation, educators can see, first, how the suggested activities in Chapters 5-11 of this book reflect cooperative principles, and, second, how such activities can expand students' repertoire of linguistic skills as well as their subject-area knowledge. For students whose access to a second language is limited, either because they themselves are not yet proficient or because their daily experience in and out of school does not provide numerous and varied occasions to observe and use the language, theory and research have established a solid basis for using group work and cooperative techniques to enhance second language development.

Models of Second Language Acquisition

Let us begin with the learner. What do current discussions of second language acquisition theory tell us about how students learn a language? Although not all of these theoretical paradigms relate directly to cooperative learning or group work, they indicate the range of issues that any theory of second language acquisition must take into account. Much of the following is

drawn from McLaughlin's (1987) analysis, where interested readers will find more detailed explication. The point of this section is that each of these models speaks to a central aspect of language acquisition that a comprehensive instructional approach must take into account. It also makes the point that group work, more specifically cooperative group work, provides a powerful tool for language acquisition because it establishes an instructional context that supports many of the aspects of language development taken as central by each of these theories.

Universal Grammar

Most apparently remote, perhaps, from cooperative principles of language acquisition are the Universal Grammar models. According to Universal Grammar, language is an innate capability that emerges according to its own predetermined sequence, relatively oblivious to environmental influences. Based on Chomsky's theory of generative grammar, this approach holds that "the first language learner comes to the acquisition task with innate, specifically linguistic, knowledge, or Universal Grammar" (McLaughlin, 1987, p. 91). The language acquisition device (LAD) is, at least metaphorically, part of our biological endowment and one that also follows a biologically determined course. Such a genetic capacity is, in this view, the only way to explain how first language acquisition takes place successfully and allows young learners to comprehend and produce sentences they have never heard before. According to this theory, the input learners receive is necessarily deficient in that it does not contain all possible structures of the language. Children must, therefore, possess a well developed biological mechanism that permits language to emerge and allows them to select the constraints, or parameters, that govern the particular language they are learning to speak (McLaughlin, 1987).

The Universal Grammar model was developed as a hypothesis to explain first rather than second language acquisition, because first language acquisition is considered the prototype of all language behavior. It is as if, once a first language is acquired, acquisition of successive languages represents simply a variation on a pre-existing theme. In the parlance of the model, the acquisition of additional languages simply involves different parameters that direct the operation of Universal Grammar according to the language being learned. As part of the human genetic endowment, the Universal Grammar remains accessible to language learners throughout life (McLaughlin, 1987); thus second language learning would be expected to follow the same course as first language learning.

Because of its emphasis on innate cognitive factors, Universal Grammar in essence ignores second language learning situations where social and cultural influences play a part in shaping communicative needs and opportunities. Additionally, it has no direct implications for pedagogy. If, as the theory assumes, the emergence of language is the manifestation of innate cognitive

processes that unfold in a sequence similar to biological maturation (Chomsky, 1988), then the impact of external activity such as instruction is relatively trivial.

However, this model emphasizes a central truth: All normal humans are endowed with the capacity to acquire language virtually perfectly, as evidenced by the fact that speakers become adept at producing and coordinating most, if not all, of the systems of their first language within the first five years of life. This impressive universal achievement demonstrates that it is not only possible but natural to master language.

Nevertheless, differences between first and second language acquisition argue for other models to explain the latter. Although it is true that all normal humans readily acquire a first language, it is also true that there is great variation in the outcomes of second language learning. Many people develop second (or third, or more) languages to native-like proficiency, but many more attain only partial control of successive languages. Universal Grammar has not fully addressed these dramatic differences in the results of second language acquisition. Furthermore, Universal Grammar is a theoretical model of the acquisition of language *competence*, or knowledge of a language, rather than language *performance*, or ability to do things with a language. In order to derive a fuller understanding of factors affecting language performance, as we must do if we are interested in preparing learners to carry out functional communication, we must turn to other models.

Information Processing Models

Second language models based on cognitive and information processing factors reflect similar concerns with internal mental structures and mechanisms. However, as the name implies, such models emphasize the processes used by learners as they attempt to make sense of the new language and to construct utterances that convey their intended meaning. Hence, these models take language perception, comprehension, and production as the point of departure for second language development. The innate drive to understand a new language forms the basis for active attempts to discover and express one's own meanings in the language. Such efforts move gradually from deliberate attempts to construct meaningful utterances to automatic ability to do so, and the shift from controlled to automatic processing and production in the new language signals growing degrees of proficiency.

A Detour: Language and Language Learning

Let us digress for a moment to relate these two models of language acquisition to current theories of language. It is important to do so because, as scholars concerned with the genesis of pedagogical approaches in language teaching have noted, most language teaching methods spring from conceptions of either the nature of language itself or of the language learning process (Richards,

1984). To understand the direction of current pedagogical methods, we must examine the underlying conceptions that guide them.

In this connection, the growing emphasis on the structure of the cognitive models of language and the language acquisition process, embodied in the Universal Grammar and Information Processing Models, bespeaks a concern for language as a kind of knowledge that is not an unanalyzed whole, but a system made up of parts fitted together through increasingly complex rules of combination. This conception of language reflects the paradigm of the mind as a mental structure in which cognition proceeds through hierarchical rule systems that recombine conceptual knowledge (Fodor, 1983). In language, these rules constitute a set of automatic recognition and decision processes that produce the linguistic competence that underlies successful performance and accounts, in part, for communicative competence.

Recent theoretical frameworks for communicative competence (e.g., Canale & Swain, 1980) also emphasize the divisible rather than unitary nature of linguistic ability; successful communication results from the interaction of separate components, not from the operation of a single language faculty (Canale, 1983). Empirical studies of second language learners show abundant evidence that a learner may achieve uneven results: for example, mastering some components, such as grammar, but not others, such as sociolinguistic or discourse competence. Thus theoretical approaches to communicative competence parallel current models of cognitive function in their attention to the divisibility of skills and the consequent pedagogical questions of how best to develop these components so that they interact smoothly. Thus, in formulations of both the nature of language and the nature of language learning, theoretical frameworks support a modular view of skill based on mastery of a set of distinct though related subsystems, all of which operate simultaneously to affect communication. Consequently, the pedagogical implications of these frameworks include not only mastery of whatever components of language are identified but also ample opportunities to practice combining them so that they are smoothly coordinated in performance. In other words, learners need to combine knowledge of language with the skills of appropriate language use (Canale, 1983; Færch & Kasper, 1986).

The relevance of such theoretical frameworks to the present discussion is this: Cognitively oriented views of second language acquisition present a learner's competence as the result of the coordination of distinct rule systems. Incomplete mastery of any one of the component systems would result in communication that did not match (or even approximate, if the level of mastery is very low) a native speaker's competence. From a cognitive perspective, then, the job of second language acquisition is one of learning the necessary systems and becoming adept at employing them in accurate and automatic coordination. Hence, instructional methods must not only present language forms but make it possible for learners to develop all subsystems in tandem.

From a cognitive perspective, learners must master the coordination of all subsystems if they are to be successful. In using the modular metaphor as the guide to language learning, these models identify the nature of the internal processes relevant to language learning that any instructional method must activate for full competence in the language to be achieved.

Having examined the relevance of models that emphasize factors internal to the learner, we turn now to other models of second language acquisition that place greater emphasis on features of the learner's psychological states, social circumstances, and possibilities for interaction as determinants of mastery.

Interlanguage Models

Interlanguage models, too, posit a developmental continuum for learners, but one that reflects psychological and social as well as cognitive factors. In such models, language acquirers understand and use as much of the new language as they are capable of producing according to rules that evolve in response to various psychological and social constraints (Schumann, 1978). Their ability to comprehend the language is determined by an interaction of the circumstances of language use and the individual psychological readiness they bring to the learning situation; it may be more advanced than their production capabilities, which may remain restricted because of limited interaction with native speakers. Their communication is referred to as "interlanguage"—not their native language, and not yet the fully developed and formally accurate second language, but a set of approximations to the second language. With appropriate motivation, possibilities for use, and opportunities to interact with native speakers, the interlanguage grows to resemble the second language more closely. If a learner lacks motivation or opportunities for authentic language use, the interlanguage may fossilize or reach a plateau beyond which further development is unlikely.

For those who aim to promote second language learning in the classroom, the challenge is to create conditions that make it possible for the learner's interlanguage to continue to develop. This requires interaction that offers abundant models of performance, and feedback that allows learners to refine their language. The classroom must provide an environment that facilitates motivation and opportunities for second language learners to persist in efforts to use the language; they must feel free to take risks in the language and be able to participate in frequent, natural communication in order to move toward development of native-like proficiency.

Input Models

The Input Model of second language acquisition (Krashen, 1985) also takes environmental conditions into account. In discussing the Input Model, I have

selected what is at present the most widely used term for one of the five central hypotheses described in Krashen's work; earlier discussions (e.g., Krashen, 1978) and current critiques (McLaughlin, 1987) have presented it under the rubric of the Monitor Model. It holds that, because of the universal ability to acquire a language, all a learner needs is exposure to a great deal of comprehensible input, that is, language and other sources of meaning that are readily understandable by the learner, in order to become skilled in the new language. In addition, the learner must be psychologically ready to take advantage of the input and not so inhibited that no processing of the language can occur. In the parlance of the model, this means having a low "affective filter," or a state of mind that is free of undue anxiety that blocks access to the language. With exposure to language appropriately tuned to learner abilities (the stage just beyond the already comprehensible input, or $i + 1$), learners will be challenged to develop their understanding and fluency. Although there are gaps in this model with respect to development of full productive proficiency (Ellis, 1986; McGroarty, 1988) (among them the lack of theoretical connection with student production, or output, and the unclear relationship between language "learning," a process that is conscious and under the control of the learner, and language "acquisition," which supposedly takes place unconsciously), it draws attention to two of the fundamental conditions necessary for learners to gain access to the language. First, mere exposure is not enough; the language directed at learners must be appropriate to their proficiency level in order for acquisition to take place. Second, learners need to have access to the language in conditions that do not create anxiety. In terms of instruction, this model then postulates that learners need access to a great deal of language that is slightly ahead of their current proficiency level and that the setting in which learners encounter the new language must be one where they are not anxious as they make efforts to understand and use a new linguistic code.

All of the models described so far, to one degree or another, have emphasized the mental processes or individual characteristics and circumstances of the language learner. While cognitive mechanisms and individual psychological characteristics are essential to any theory of language acquisition, recent research in other social sciences suggests that they are not sufficient to explain the variation in group or individual types of first or second language use. To account for these variations, we need to examine two additional frameworks for understanding language acquisition.

Socialization Models

Anthropologists have shown us how intimately first language learning is tied to socialization patterns (Heath, 1983, 1986; Ochs, 1988; Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984; Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986). Developmental psychologists, too, have shown that the type of interaction between children and caretakers is decisive in developing language skills (Wells, 1981, 1985). Children learn not only the

forms of their language but also the appropriate contexts for use from the interactions they observe and take part in. It is through the interactions between child and interlocutors, as well as by the child's own observations, that language skills are built up and refined to suit the communicative needs relevant to the environments experienced. Attainment of a complete communicative repertoire comes about through multiple experiences of different contexts for communication, each of which may have its own conventions for appropriate linguistic forms and usage patterns. Furthermore, observational studies (Heath, 1986; Wong Fillmore, Ammon, McLaughlin, & Ammon, 1985) have shown that young second language learners transfer patterns of first language socialization into their efforts to learn a second language in the ways they initially seek to understand and use the new language.

While the experience of a second language learner is not identical to that of a child acquiring a first language, these models are important to a discussion of pedagogy because they emphasize the need for multiple social contexts for language acquisition. Without access to observation of or participation in many instances of different types of language behavior, learners will attain a restricted range of competence even in the first language. Second language learners, who may encounter the new language only in school, are potentially isolated from opportunities to observe and take part in a wide range of interactions in the new language. Moreover, the modes of language learning that have been part of their socialization may be different from those of the school. Thus, these models suggest that effective instructional approaches will provide multiple contexts for language use and do so in ways that are consonant with the language learning styles students bring to school. As we shall see in the next section on research related to group work in second language learning, there is evidence that group based activities do both.

Interactive Models

Emphasis on the social context of first language acquisition has led to a reevaluation of the social factors that play a role in second language acquisition. Thus, we have what we might call an interactive model of second language acquisition that emphasizes the communicative and social quality of the interchange between the learner and other speakers of the language as one of the keys to second language mastery (Swain & Wong Fillmore, 1984). Based on the premise that the cognitive, linguistic, and social systems involved in human communication are all brought to bear during interaction, these models predict that "language is developed as a way of structuring experience as that experience takes place" (Hatch, Wenzel, & Hunt, 1986, p. 6). In other words, full mastery of language grows from interactions in the language that accomplish real-life ends; without experience in using the language to communicate information, accomplish tasks, express feelings, and play, learners will not grow in language competence. In emphasizing the interplay between the language

learner and the possibilities for interaction in the local learning environment, these models are more comprehensive than those based solely on considerations of cognitive and psychological variables. Moreover, because they include consideration of what the learner does during interactions as well as the kind of language available to learners, they cast learners in an active role, rather than make them passive recipients of input.

Evidence for the necessity of interaction in acquiring a second language in classrooms as well as in natural settings is convincing. Longitudinal research in second language immersion programs has shown that massive amounts of input do not guarantee native-like performance (Swain, 1985). We also have evidence that participation in verbal interaction helps learners refine their second language skills in the direction of full mastery even in the relatively short span of one instructional period (Hawkins, 1988). All of these converging pieces of evidence argue for the centrality of interaction in any theory of language acquisition, first or second. Because interaction provides not only input but also occasions for output, it is the matrix of a learner's mastery of language. Thus, any instructional approach that aims to produce full second language proficiency must provide for learners to interact as they use the new language to accomplish genuine communication. The use of group work facilitates many sorts of interactions, as will be noted below; also, in linking language use to curricular objectives, cooperative learning provides students with shared contexts in which they must carry out activities required to accomplish academic goals.

Hence the stage is set for use of cooperative learning as an approach that fosters effective second language acquisition. Each of the models reviewed here emphasizes certain properties of second language acquisition that bear on the choice of instructional method. Because cooperative learning makes it possible for learners to have access to language through input, experience multiple opportunities to process and produce the new language, and interact with other speakers, it addresses many of the avenues for second language acquisition postulated by current models. For a more precise understanding of how group work facilitates language acquisition, we now turn to related studies.

Research on Group Work in Second Language Learning

Educators seeking to know more about the possible value of cooperative learning for language development find a growing body of pertinent research. While few studies have specifically examined cooperative second language learning in K-12 classrooms in the United States, there is enough evidence from investigations of various types of group work in language learning to merit serious attention. Furthermore, some studies of cooperative learning, notably those done by Cohen and her colleagues (see Cohen, 1986), have assessed

some of the linguistic processes and outcomes—as well as academic outcomes in other subject areas—that occur as a result of cooperative learning arrangements. Together, the research on group work in language learning and that on the linguistic aspects of cooperative activity in classrooms reveal the potential utility of small-group interaction in promoting language mastery. Here, based on the research available to date, we summarize the major benefits of group work for second language students. These benefits relate to three areas of major theoretical importance for language development: input, interaction, and contextualization of knowledge.

Input: Greater Complexity of Language

In traditional classrooms, students with limited English proficiency receive less teacher and peer communication and communication at a lower linguistic and cognitive level (Arthur, Weiner, Culver, Lee, & Thomas, 1980; Long, 1980; Schinke-Llano, 1983). Research suggests that one of the main advantages of group work for second language learners is that it offers students the chance to hear more language and more complex language during interaction. In discussions with others, students may hear more complex language from their peers than from the teacher in whole-class discussion. The increased complexity of input and output (Long & Porter, 1985; Pica, 1987) that accompanies group work facilitates language development.

For a partial theoretical explanation, we could borrow Krashen's terminology. The chance of every member of a class being at the same $i + 1$ level (the stage of linguistic development where the learner can process the input, i, and still be exposed to new language forms and structures just beyond the current level of comprehension, $i + 1$) is slim. However, if there are many kinds of interaction shaped by the negotiation among different levels of speakers, the chances that at least some of the input will be appropriate are greater.

In addition to linguistic complexity, group activity offers greater possibilities for exposure to ideas that are cognitively complex. Complexity and variety of input produce higher level cognitive development (Bloom, 1964; Bruner, 1966). In one study, students participating in group-based investigation made more high-level cognitive gains than those who took part in peer-tutoring or whole-class methods (Sharan et al., 1984).

Input: Creation of Natural Redundancy

The process of asking and answering questions and working out tasks with various degrees of uncertainty provides a natural context for greater redundancy in communication as students exchange information and requests. This redundancy, again contextualized within curriculum-relevant tasks, supports growth of comprehension. Experimental evidence with adult learners of English shows that greater redundancy, achieved by natural repetition of words

and rephrasing of ideas in conversation, improves comprehension (Pica, Young, & Doughty, 1987). Note that redundancy in cooperative learning situations is not the rote repetition characteristic of audio-lingual language teaching but a result of the communicative requirements of interaction between peers. Because it is based on interactional needs, the repetition and rephrasing retains communicative relevance and does not become simple parroting of responses.

Input: Appropriate Levels of Accuracy

A recurring worry in second language classrooms is that, left to talk with each other, students will make so many errors that they will acquire an imperfect version of the new language. In cases where there are few native speakers to serve as interlocutors during cooperative learning or any sort of group work, teachers may fear that accuracy will suffer. However, whenever data from experimental situations or from classrooms have been examined, the results are reassuring. Students engaged in group work make no more errors than they do during teacher-centered interaction. In fact, data from one study shows that the proportion of errors in cooperative student work is far lower than that in teacher-led instruction, primarily because students have such abundant practice opportunities in cooperative work that they use much more language overall (Deen, 1987). Furthermore, most of the language they use is pragmatically accurate (though it may well be structurally simple if they are beginners). Hence, use of group work does not endanger students' ultimate prospects for becoming accurate users of the new language; although attainment of native-like fluency requires eventual interaction with proficient speakers in situations that call for production of comprehensible output (Swain, 1985), group work in a second language setting can be a step in developing the linguistic skills and strategies needed.

Interaction: Greater, More Varied Practice Opportunities

In traditional classrooms, even those serving only native speakers of English, students have little opportunity to express themselves to teachers or peers (Dunkin & Biddle, 1974; Goodlad, 1984). The structure of traditional classrooms gives only one person at a time the chance to speak; most observational research indicates that the speaker is the teacher 60 to 70% of the time during teacher-centered interaction (Pica & Doughty, 1985a, 1985b). In contrast, in cooperative learning, one fourth to one half of the students can speak at any given time, depending on whether pair work or group work is being used.

Besides increasing the sheer number of opportunities available for verbal expression, cooperative learning arrangements promote use of a wider range of communicative functions than those found in typical classrooms. There is explicit training in such skills as paraphrasing the ideas of others, asking for explanations, summarizing, clarifying, indicating agreement or disagreement,

and interrupting politely, all categories of verbal skills familiar to those who take a functional approach to language acquisition. Educators who have used cooperative learning with second language speakers note that there are "strong parallels between what cooperative learning experts call social skills and the functional categories described by applied linguists" (Coelho, 1988). Giving students practice in a wide range of functional skills as they carry out tasks based on the regular curriculum is an efficient way to promote language acquisition (Pica, 1987).

Available research on peer involvement in second language learning, from pre-school to university settings, confirms these possibilities. In Gaies' (1985) review of research, he found that use of pair or group work always increased practice opportunities greatly, often led to development of better oral skills, and provided welcome diversity of activity in the classroom. Reviewing investigations of group work, Long and Porter (1985) also found that group or pair work in second language classes increased practice opportunities regardless of class size. A study comparing cooperative and traditional instructional methods in high school EFL classes in Israel also confirmed the considerable increase in opportunities for natural practice of language when cooperative methods were used (Bejarano, 1987). Similarly, a cooperative Jigsaw activity created many more practice opportunities than did teacher-centered instruction in a university Dutch class (Deen, 1987), as did a cooperative role-play in an ESL class (Christison, 1988). There is, then, substantial evidence that cooperative learning arrangements give students much more opportunity to use the new language than they typically receive in teacher-centered instruction.

Interaction: More Opportunities for Questions

One of the ways input is shaped and output required is through the question-answer process. For students in school, the ability to ask different kinds of questions is an essential functional skill that facilitates both linguistic and cognitive learning. Group work allows and frequently requires students to ask questions of each other, thus giving them additional practice in language use in the service of meaningful communication as they make efforts to gather information or clarify meaning. In the university Dutch class mentioned earlier, the number of student questions in group work was significantly greater than that observed in teacher-led interaction; students asked far more questions and different kinds of questions, thus increasing the input they needed and, at the same time, practicing natural use of the language (Deen, 1987). When the focus is mainly on the teacher, it is difficult for students to generate many questions. When working in small groups, however, questions become one of the principal means by which the activity can be accomplished.

Furthermore, group work related to task accomplishment leads to production of real—or *referential*—questions, questions to which the person asking does not have an answer; the questioner truly needs the information. In con-

trast, *display* questions, often a prominent feature of teachers' classroom language, ask a learner to produce information that the questioner already knows (e.g., "Is this a pencil?" "Do I have a book?"), thus rendering their communicative value nil. Besides being grounded in genuine communicative need, referential questions typically produce more complex responses (Brock, 1986; Long et al., 1984) and can stimulate requests for clarification, elaboration, and other meaning-based expansions (Pica, 1987). Hence, tasks that promote use of referential questions among learners will also stimulate more extensive discussions better adapted to the contingencies of the interaction.

Interaction: Production of Appropriate Units of Language

Besides demanding that learners use and respond to a variety of language functions, including numerous and varied questions, group work provides for frequent production of short units of speech according to task. In surveying data from groups of second language learners engaged in completing communication games, Bygate (1988) found that much of their speech consisted not of complete, independent sentences, but of shorter stretches of language termed "satellite units," such as meaningful noun or adjective groups or subordinate clauses. These shorter units, while not part of a well formed sentence, contributed to the overall meaning of the discussion and advanced the task. As learners added phrases, qualifiers, and discourse markers, and paraphrased and expanded each other's utterances, they used satellite units whose meaning depended on their place in ongoing interaction. Thus, Bygate argues, the small-group context enabled them to recognize and produce "dependent units appropriately in the context of discourse, without imposing the additional processing load implied by the requirements of having to produce 'complete sentences' " (1988, p. 74).

Recall the models of second language acquisition that emphasize cognitive processing and input. One of their implications for instruction is that learners be provided with units of language that are attuned to their level of proficiency and slightly in advance of their own comprehension. Additionally, interactive models of second language acquisition emphasize the need to ground mastery of the language in actual use, even from the single word stage of production. In exposing learners to short units of language contextualized in ongoing interaction and requiring them to participate even by producing only words or phrases, small-group work provides the sort of verbal environment that is both flexible and closely tailored to the learner's communicative needs. We might say that it segments language learning into manageable units naturally rather than through artificial repetition exercises or pattern practice drills.

Cognitive Context: Better Contextualization of Linguistic and Academic Knowledge

Research on cooperative learning in classrooms serving native English speakers has shown that cooperative groups exceed individualistic learning structures in providing several kinds of redundancy important for language development and cognitive mastery. Cooperative group settings provide more verbal input at low levels (repetition of information), intermediate levels (stating new information), and high levels (stating explanations and rationales and integrating information) than is available through individual study in traditional classroom formats (Johnson & Johnson, 1983; Johnson, Johnson, De Weerdt, Lyons, & Zaidman, 1983). Thus, the redundancy available in cooperative settings is tied to the cognitive demands of the tasks. Because the information content is presumably relevant to accomplishing curricular goals in different subject areas, students not only hear more and better quality repetition of language; they hear it in the context of an academic activity that provides a conceptual structure for the redundancy. The importance of such a condition for language development is that, given a meaningful context, students will remember much more of what they hear.

Although there is no research that has tested this feature of cooperative instruction in classrooms serving nonnative English speakers, there is reason to believe that the nature of the interaction in group settings provides a natural context for some of the same kinds of restatements that Chaudron (1983) found to be related to improved recall of lecture content for university level second language learners. His work shows that various kinds of topic restatements enhance learning differentially, with lower proficiency students in particular benefitting from repetition and simpler forms of restatement. Because group work often requires and always promotes restatements of problems, particularly when students work on tasks that include elements of uncertainty in their outcomes (Cohen, 1986) and must fulfill particular roles within their groups or teams (see Kagan, 1986), we would expect it to provide the kind of redundancy that supports growth of linguistic and academic skills.

Cognitive Context: More Possibilities for Natural Correction

Group work makes students better judges of their own communicative accuracy. Experimental evidence collected in pair and group activity shows that such settings promote more self- and other-correction (Deen, 1987; Porter, 1983; Varonis & Gass, 1983). When working with each other in trying to solve a problem, come to a consensus, or complete a multi-step activity, learners must be sure they understand their partners and make their own meaning clear. They can see the result of misunderstanding at once, and so must correct themselves or their partners immediately in order to carry on the activity. Evidence from adult learners of English indicates that task-based interaction

promotes more corrective feedback than free conversation (Crookes & Rulon, 1985). Group work thus promotes the self-repair (van Lier, 1988) that contributes to a learner's ability to understand and produce language that is adequate for accurate expression of meaning.

With the focus on meaning, correction is used in the service of understanding; it is not an end in itself, as often happens in language classes emphasizing formal accuracy above all else. Because students work in pairs or groups, they need not fear public loss of face in front of the whole class if they make errors, and anxiety is lowered. Research confirms that students are good judges of whether or not something has been understood and, given the opportunity, are willing to fine-tune their speech to achieve accurate communication. This is the press to create "comprehensible output," which is needed for full proficiency (Swain, 1985). Without the press to make interlocutors understand the nuances and details of communication, not just the general idea, second language speakers will not attain native-speaker competence. Thus, classroom activities that demand accuracy in comprehension and production of the new language increase the likelihood that students will develop maximal rather than minimal skills in using the new language accurately.

Cognitive Context: Use of First Language Abilities

An additional benefit of cooperative learning arrangements, of special interest to those in bilingual classes, is its potential for increasing academically relevant use of the first language (McGroarty, 1989; Wong Fillmore & Valadez, 1986). While little research in this area has been done, observational data from the bilingual classroom studied by Cohen and her colleagues (cited in Cohen, 1986) suggest that, in cooperative groups where there are bilinguals and monolinguals (who speak only Spanish or only English), the bilinguals and the monolingual Spanish speakers must direct their talk to the task at hand in order to accomplish the activity. This means that Spanish is then practiced in the context of a learning activity, so it has the status of a vehicle for learning instead of a surreptitious gloss of the English interaction. Much more research is needed here. However, indications are that cooperative work, appropriately structured, can effectively use students' first language capabilities and thus increase the fund of school experiences that facilitate access to second language mastery.

The research done to date is very promising. It shows that pair or group work gives students more opportunities to practice language; access to more complex and varied input; a natural context for exposure to appropriately redundant communication and production of varied output; more reason to refine and correct their language in order to get meanings across; and prospects for using their first language abilities as they develop their second. Research evidence for the increased practice, complexity, redundancy, and impetus to refine second language use in group work is solid and unequivocal; rela-

tively less is known about the potential contribution of the first language to second language mastery in group work because less research has examined this topic. The benefits of group work in language learning may differ according to the precise techniques employed and the instructional settings involved, but the evidence is consistent and persuasive enough to warrant implementation of group work as research proceeds to provide more differentiated information on the most appropriate forms of group work for varied classes and instructional goals.

Elements of Effective Second Language Instruction

Theories of language acquisition along with classroom research on group work suggest elements needed for effective language learning and instruction. For language acquisition to occur, simple exposure to the language is not enough. Research indicates that students who have had the benefit of instruction learn the new language more efficiently (Bejarano, 1987; Long, 1983). What, then, do theory and research identify as features of instructional programs that promote second language learning? Again we turn to the areas of interaction, input, and cognitive context as the prime categories of interest.

Interaction: Varied Group Settings

Studies of first language socialization imply a need for learners to observe language use in a variety of settings and take part in verbal exchanges with many different interlocutors, both intimates and non-intimates, in order to become proficient in ways of using language as well as to learn actual grammatical and syntactic forms. To master the full range of expression and build socially appropriate language skills, learners need to see and participate in many different sorts of talk, as the Socialization Model of second language acquisition indicates.

Establishing conditions where this can occur is a major challenge for the classroom, where the traditional participation structures restrict both teachers' and students' communicative range and teachers dominate classroom speech, often by a factor of three or four utterances to one short student response (Chaudron, 1988; Long & Porter, 1985). In typical classroom discourse, exchanges follow a regular tripartite pattern of initiation–response–feedback, with the teacher controlling the first and third moves and the student role restricted to that of respondent (Cazden, 1986, 1987; Mehan, 1979). While there is variability within classes and across teachers, observational research in second language classrooms that follow a teacher-led pattern shows that students have considerable exposure to teacher talk, which may or may not be varied and interesting, but few opportunities to practice their developing language skills. Thus, varied interaction formats in the classroom (Kramsch, 1987) are essential for comprehensive skill development.

Interaction: Foundation of Cognitive Growth and Literacy

Effective second language teaching programs give students extensive interactive experience that allows them to express ideas and exchange information, an essential requirement for language acquisition according to the Interactive Models reviewed in the first section of this chapter. By making it possible for students to interact in pair and small-group work, current communicatively oriented language teaching approaches increase participation in verbal interaction. If students can talk to each other, they will have greater exposure to language, more opportunities to build comprehension and express their own meanings, and more opportunities to ask the clarification questions needed to carry on real-life communication. While there is a place for large-group, teacher-centered instruction in most current methods, pedagogical experts advocate the use of small-group work as an essential component of a solid second language teaching program (Enright & McCloskey, 1988). California's English-Language Arts Framework makes the point strongly: "Working cooperatively with native and nonnative speakers of English increases students' opportunities to hear and produce language and to negotiate with others . . ." (California Department of Education, 1987, p. 23). Thus, theory and research in second language acquisition unequivocally support the need for peer interaction in classrooms marked by language diversity. Such interaction is relevant to other important curricular goals in addition to language; an entire instructional strand of the *History–Social Science Framework* (California Department of Education, 1987) is devoted to the development of skills for participation in social decision-making at all grade levels, and training students to participate in group interaction is essential to achieving this goal.

The availability of plentiful opportunities for genuine communication through oral language becomes a critical issue with respect to acquisition of literacy. Recent research in the initial establishment of reading and writing skills emphasizes the importance of interaction as a basis for making texts meaningful (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). Without the opportunity to experience texts of all sorts through interaction with others in repeating, paraphrasing, asking questions, arguing, and generating alternatives, there is little connection between the world of print and the world of oral language. For second language learners whose oral skills are still in the process of development, a solid second language instructional program would include multiple opportunities to listen to and talk about all kinds of texts from fairy tales to newspapers, possibilities to create meaningful texts as a class or group, and vocabulary development through interactive discussion. Such activities prior to individual reading and writing tasks are as important for second language learners as they are for native speakers (California Department of Education, 1987).

To be maximally effective, interaction opportunties should include one- and two-way tasks. One-way tasks are those in which each person expresses ideas or contributes information during discussion; justifying one's opinion

about who should be saved if a group of people is marooned after a plane crash would be an example. Two-way tasks are those in which participants need information from each other to solve a problem or complete a task, as in activities where participants are each given parts of a story and must work out the appropriate sequence for the whole event. In theory, the latter are better suited to true communicative development (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Pica & Doughty, 1985a), although both kinds of tasks are important in terms of overall mastery of language forms and uses.

Input: Availability and Quality

The Input Model highlights the importance of exposure to communication that is shaped according to the learner's level of comprehension and proficiency. Information Processing Models of second language acquisition also emphasize the necessity of input conditions that allow learners to process language with relative ease so that they can build up the store of conceptual and syntactic knowledge needed for fluent communication. Effective second language teaching demands that students be provided with a great deal of input, at least some of which is attuned to their developing competence. Programs that make it possible for learners to receive appropriate input from peers, as well as from the teacher, increase the exposure to the new language, which is a necessary prerequisite to further skill development. Practitioners confirm the importance of input that is not just linguistically appropriate but also interesting and motivating for students. In language learning, as in all other learning, students are unlikely to attend to activities and materials that are boring or repetitious. Well designed instructional programs and good teaching make it possible for them to have continued access to comprehensible and interesting uses of the new language.

Learners need an environment that is "acquisition rich," one that gives access to meaning through appropriate language, many pictures and other non-verbal channels, and frequent opportunities to test hypotheses about language. Additionally, the classroom atmosphere should be one where emphasis is on conveying meanings accurately rather than on constant correction of grammar, so that student anxieties about making mistakes and appearing foolish are reduced to a minimum. Drawing on these principles, Krashen and Terrell (1983) have articulated a "Natural Approach" to second language instruction that rests on providing students varied and concrete experiences with oral language aimed at building comprehension, fluency, and confidence. This approach is consistent with the *English-Language Arts Framework*, which observes the following about learners, regardless of their age: They need first of all to "understand the meaning of the message"; they can be assisted in their quest for meaning when the verbal message is accompanied by "gestures, pictures, actions, and rewards"; they require "frequent opportunities to speak, write, and listen"; and they should be taught by methods that "minimize the

study of the rules of grammar until speakers are proficient" (California Department of Education, 1987, p. 22).

Contextualization of Language through Content

Another key to effective second language programs is that language learning and instruction are not limited to the language class alone. Where full proficiency in the second language is a goal, it is essential to build second language skills in content area classes. Content-based language learning is theoretically sound (see, e.g., Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 1989; Mohan, 1986) and eminently practical (Crandall, 1987; Kessler, 1992) for teachers who want to give students a comprehensive base in the second language (see Milk, 1985, 1991, for discussion of these converging needs in ESL and bilingual instruction). Taking advantage of the language teaching opportunities in math, social studies, or science classes provides teachers with additional avenues for development of comprehension, vocabulary, and oral production skills. Using content texts as a basis for related language instruction also gives students greater support in building reading comprehension and other literacy-related skills.

Other Hallmarks of High Quality Instruction

In addition to the features described above, effective second language instruction depends on several factors characteristic of any good educational program: (1) well trained teachers; (2) an interesting and well sequenced curriculum; (3) possibilities for many sorts of practice through hands-on activities as well as text-related work; (4) a productive, non-threatening classroom environment that encourages student efforts; and (5) appropriate assessment at the classroom and the program level. These influence the quality of instruction in any subject area and are equally essential in second language programs.

Merging Theory and Method: Cooperative Learning and Second Language Acquisition

The brief descriptions of models and methods in second language learning demonstrate important parallels with the cardinal principles of cooperative learning. Developments in the fields of second language teaching and cooperative learning underscore the necessity of addressing three aspects of the instructional process and four issues in instructional planning in order to enhance student learning and social skills, both areas that are critical to mastery of a second language. The three cardinal aspects of classroom processes are repeated and varied exposure to knowledge, interaction as a foundation of learning, and—related to interaction—negotiation as a key process.

Repeated and Varied Exposure to Knowledge

First, the theoretical frameworks for both second language acquisition and cooperative learning emphasize the need for varied and repeated exposure to language. To learn language and to be able to participate in activities, students need prior experience as a basis for comprehension. Such experience can be provided by preliminary discussions in the first language, contextualized vocabulary development in the second language, and demonstration through linguistic and non-verbal means.

Interaction as a Foundation of Learning

Second, interaction is central to the success of cooperative learning as well as to second language development. Interaction among students who have specific roles to fulfill in completing a task offers multiple chances to ask questions and clarify meanings. For language and content area mastery, provision of multiple and varied contexts for understanding is vital. Task-based interaction (Long, 1985; Long et al., 1984; Pica & Doughty, 1985b) among students becomes a major vehicle in conveying meaning and giving students an active role in understanding the new language and the subject area concerned.

Negotiation as a Key Process

The importance of negotiation among students follows from the importance of interaction. As important as the fact of interaction is the end to which it is directed. While there are many types of cooperative activity useful in a variety of subject areas, those requiring some negotiation among students who must solve a problem or come to a consensus are optimal for second language development. Negotiating with other students creates a need for students to refine their language skills as they strive to provide "comprehensible output" (Swain, 1985) for their interlocutors. Talk among students thus allows them to clarify and correct both subject matter concepts and related linguistic forms in a natural context.

The importance of varied exposure, interaction, and negotiation has major implications for curriculum design and classroom management for both second language instruction and cooperative learning. The nature of appropriate curriculum and activity structures demonstrates parallel theoretical relevance for acquisition of subject matter and second language skills. For cooperative learning to be effective in a second language or dual language classroom, teachers should employ the following instructional strategies designed to respond to the unique needs of students with limited English proficiency: (1) plan the roles for the first and second language; (2) vary group composition according to the demands of the task; (3) ensure contextual support for text-related learning; and (4) use informal as well as formal learning methods.

Preplanned Roles for First and Second Language

Cooperative learning means that students work in teams or groups that engage in different learning tasks. Different parts of the lesson may be delivered through different student teams. Team composition, actual team activities, and instructional materials require adaptation for linguistically diverse classrooms. To facilitate language development in bilingual or multilingual settings, teachers need to make a reasoned determination of the kinds of language arrangements that will best suit student needs according to program objectives. Hence, effective implementation of cooperative work for students with varied proficiency in first and second languages demands careful classroom-level language planning with respect to instructional grouping, activities, techniques, and materials. The teacher thus needs to engineer language use in the first and second language to accomplish program goals; for bilingual learners, creating social settings that motivate the use of each language for curricular activities is essential (Wong Fillmore & Valadez, 1986).

For example, teachers in bilingual programs need to devise group work in which there is attention to development of both the first and the second language. They can train students to use each language appropriately by assigning student roles that take language into account, by providing materials in both languages, and by articulating their expectations about when the first and second language should be used (see Cohen, 1986). Teachers who use specialized English approaches in classrooms serving students from a variety of first language backgrounds need to arrange groups so that students receive second language input appropriate to their proficiency level and, where possible, assistance in their primary language. In such classrooms, some groups may be working in the primary language, while others work in a second language with considerable contextual support that promotes redundant practice opportunities. The critical point is that use of the first and second language during cooperative instruction be linked directly to program goals. (See Chapter 4 of this volume.)

Need for Varied Group Composition According to Task

Cooperative learning prescribes small, interdependent groups, each of whose members has a defined role to fulfill (Kagan, 1986; Kagan, this volume). Much current second language research summarized in this chapter emphasizes the value of peer group work, which includes both pairs and teams. In both cases, theory and research suggest that giving students practice within groups smaller than the whole class accomplishes two vital goals: (1) It provides far more frequent opportunities for students to practice relevant skills; and (2) It promotes an environment where individual efforts to solve problems and communicate take place among supportive peers rather than among competitors. Students who may be afraid to take part in whole-class discussions find coop-

erative groups or small-group language activities far less threatening. If learning tasks have been appropriately planned, group members are rewarded for helping each other, so that any effort at learning is a positive step toward mastery rather than a potential occasion for mistakes. Consequently, it is important to be able to select the various types of group structures that can enhance language and subject area learning.

Different group structures can be used for different parts of the lesson. For example, in Jigsaw, students meet in expert groups that are homogeneous with regard to language needs (all using the primary language, or all at approximately the same level in English). To ensure negotiation of meaning and practice of relevant language, students report back to their home teams, which are heterogeneous in terms of English language proficiency. (See Chapter 9, this volume, for sample lessons using Jigsaw.) In general, during acquisition of new material in content classes, especially with cognitively demanding material, there will be more reliance on the primary language. During application of the newly acquired content, and with less demanding content that can be supported through visual and other means, more second language use is appropriate.

Contextual Support for Verbal Learning

To support cooperative learning activities and second language acquisition, the curriculum must be based on presentation and reinforcement of concepts in a variety of settings using the maximum range of verbal and non-verbal support. Using subject area classes as the basis for activities diversifies the practice opportunities for conceptual and linguistic skills: thus the importance of integrating both cooperative learning and second language instruction into content areas. To provide the multiple, repeated occasions of observation and practice necessary for mastery, both cooperative learning and second language instruction require an environment where the focus is on communication of meaning through many channels—verbal, visual, tactile, kinesthetic—which can be directed to relevant goals in subjects such as math or social studies. In this volume, the model units on language arts provide examples of second language students using pictures and illustrated vocabulary cards as they work on comprehension and language development. The history-social studies unit in Chapter 11 suggests the use of visuals such as maps and charts as the basis for group activities.

Use of Informal as Well as Formal Learning Methods

A corollary to the need for a variety of media and activity structures in the classroom is the need to make the instructional situation in school more like informal, out-of-school learning, and thus include more opportunities for observation, modeling of correct performance, and practice guided by close atten-

tion to learner efforts (Resnick, 1987). In cooperative learning, we see this reflected in the differential impact of various sorts of help provided for learners. In a study by Webb (1982), in academic paper-and-pencil tasks, learners who received simple restatements of solutions to problems did not benefit, but those who received explanations of the process of problem-solving from other members of the group did. In second language pedagogy, a comparable effort to make learning conditions in the classroom more closely resemble those of everyday life is seen in the push to incorporate features of real-life communication, such as concern for meaning as well as form and exchange of new information rather than rehearsal of what is already known.

One of the principal ways that cooperative learning provides a context closer to that found outside of school is the way it changes the traditional relationship of teacher and students. Teachers move away from the front of the class and into the role of consultant to teams (Kagan, 1986; Cohen, 1986). As this occurs, teachers less often lecture to the whole class and more often speak to individuals or small groups, thus providing opportunities for teachers to tailor their language to the needs of the students addressed and use the language of natural interaction, which includes student contributions as a part of the exchange. By virtue of group structures, cooperative learning moves teacher communication closer to a two-way mode of information exchange, which is more characteristic of real conversation than is the more typical one-way mode of transmission found in most classrooms. Because teachers can interact with different individuals and groups more often under cooperative or group conditions, they can provide a level of linguistic input and detail that is more closely matched to the diverse linguistic and academic needs of their students.

Unanswered Questions About Second Language Learning in Cooperative Activity Settings

There are still some unanswered questions related to the applicability of cooperative models in settings of linguistic diversity. These represent areas in which more research and practical experience are needed to provide optimum guidelines for instruction. There are two basic concerns regarding cooperative learning in all settings, including the linguistically diverse classroom: (1) the relationship of thought and language and (2) the connection between the development of oral and literacy skills. Three concerns related specifically to linguistically and culturally diverse instruction merit further investigation: (1) the balance of teacher and peer models, (2) optimal proficiency ranges for different tasks, and (3) accommodation of "silent period" learners. Chaudron (1988) sets out several additional areas demanding further specification through research for second language classrooms in general.

Relationship of Thought and Language

More precise understanding of this area is central to all work on classroom discourse, for the assumed relationship between language use and thought is one that drives much developmental research. Many of the activities used in the cooperative language learning research done to date are those that aim to develop socially appropriate language use, which is a necessary aspect of language proficiency in any setting, classrooms included. However, mastery of socially appropriate language and interactional skills is not always sufficient to guarantee academic success, though it is a vital prerequisite. To accept the view that language is only a tool of interpersonal communication is a reductionist view, one that neglects the role of internal dialogue and language as an instrument of thought. To take a Vygotskyan perspective, we need to know how to use group activities to create interactions suited to students' "zones of proximal development," so that participants develop independent abilities to deal with text. Such research on the language used in classroom processes would explicitly address possible relationships between language use and cognition (see Cazden, 1986, pp. 451-455).

Connection Between Oral and Literacy Skills

Further research is needed regarding productive combinations of oral language and literacy skill development through cooperative work at all levels. Much of the research on second language learning cited previously was done with learners at the post-secondary level who had already developed strong literacy skills in their native language. Because of evidence supporting the transfer of academic literacy skills across languages (Cummins, 1979, 1981; Cummins & Swain, 1986), we assume that some of the abilities displayed by older second language learners in cooperative work were the result of already established skills in dealing with text. Appropriate cooperative activities for students who are not yet literate in any language may differ from those most useful for students who already have experience with reading and writing, even if the language in which they are literate is not that used in the classroom.

The connection between group work and individual writing relates both to the nature of the language processes that occur in group settings and their effects on students' thinking and to the matter of oral and literacy skill development (Flower & Higgins, 1991; Valdés, 1991). A recent review of group work in secondary and university writing classes demonstrates that such activities have a variety of outcomes with respect to abilities to produce texts (Di Pardo & Freedman, 1988). More such research is needed with students of different age and proficiency levels to establish the nature of group activities best suited to accomplish development of abilities to create as well as comprehend written discourse.

Issues of classroom status are also tied to questions of optimal combinations of oral language and literacy activities. In planning cooperative activities, it is important to ensure that the status that accrues to students who are already social leaders and adept at literacy skills does not exacerbate already existing hierarchies within a class. Cohen's (1984) work in math and science classes has shown that, even with rich multi-media tasks, students who are seen as good in math and science and students who are popular interact more and therefore learn more. Teachers wishing to exploit cooperative learning for students from diverse language backgrounds may thus need to address the issue of student status explicity through treatments designed to equalize status prior to the implementation of cooperative arrangements (see Cohen, 1986).

Balance of Teacher and Peer Models

Another question, particularly important in classrooms serving linguistically and culturally diverse groups, is the extent to which students are attuned to adult rather than peer models. Choice of models for learning will in turn affect the suitability of some types of cooperative arrangements. Here, factors related to cultural background and family socialization patterns play a part. Research in bilingual classrooms serving Hispanic and Anglo students has shown that Spanish-speaking students tend to prefer cooperative learning (Gonzalez, 1983) in the experimental tasks used. On the other hand, observational research in bilingual classrooms serving predominantly Spanish- or Chinese-speaking children has shown Chinese children to be more dependent on teacher example; this pattern was strongest for children who were just beginning to learn English and much less marked for those who were intermediate or already fluent (Wong Fillmore et al., 1985). Thus, we need to learn more about the way culturally based preferences for learning models interact with second language proficiency levels as students move toward language mastery.

This is a delicate issue. Under no circumstance would we wish to restrict the opportunities made possible by cooperative learning to members of only certain ethnic groups, nor can we say that ethnic group membership should consign a child to one single mode of instructional delivery. Cooperative learning should not be used to create stereotypes. After years of work with speakers of Hawaiian Creole English whose environment included peer caretaking, scholars noted the benefits of incorporating group work into the classroom and the dangers of presenting it as the only viable instructional approach. They warn against accepting the idea that some ethnic groups are always best served by group-based cooperative activities to the exclusion of all other methods, for such thinking creates a stereotype, albeit a benign one (Weisner, Gallimore, & Jordan, 1988). Such stereotypes oversimplify both individual differences and the complex mission of schooling, which includes exposing students to new knowledge and giving them new ways of knowing as well as validating what

they know. In terms of the present discussion, this means that cooperative learning offers a promising additional avenue to second language proficiency, one to be used in conjunction with, not in place of, other instructional formats.

Optimal Proficiency Ranges for Different Tasks

One of the major practical and theoretical questions to be addressed is the nature of the appropriate proficiency range for cooperative learning tasks. In experimental studies, learner opportunity to repeat and self-correct is greatest when learners of two distinct proficiency levels interact (Gass & Varonis, 1985). Furthermore, classroom research in a Spanish-English bilingual setting using mixed-language cooperative groups has shown that the higher the percentage of students talking and working together, the greater the gains in standardized achievement tests (Cohen & Lotan, 1988). Hence, both experimental and naturalistic evidence suggest that the effect of cooperative groups on achievement is positive.

Further work is indicated to see if there is any point at which the difficulties of communicating with a less skilled interlocutor become so frustrating that accomplishing the task becomes onerous. Experience suggests that tasks with different levels of cognitive complexity require different sorts of grouping arrangements depending on student proficiency ranges, as noted in Chapter 4 and reflected in the activities and lessons in Chapters 5-11.

How to Accommodate "Silent Period" Learners

Theoretical work in second language proficiency suggests another unanswered question regarding cooperative learning: the extent to which students in "the silent period" are able and willing to be part of group activities using the new language. Much anecdotal and observational evidence has suggested that learners show great individual variation in their initial openness to the new language. Even children as young as five differ. Some are willing to try to use it right away, while others go through a period of silent observation as they try to come to terms with a totally new system of communicating (Wong Fillmore, 1979). Additional research and documentation of classroom experiences will help us to know whether and how to incorporate learners in the silent period into group work requiring second language use.

Considerations in Planning Cooperative Language Learning

The foregoing discussion of second language learning and the questions still to be answered in planning cooperative work suggest the factors that educators must consider in deciding how cooperative learning suits their second language learners. Additional guidelines for planning a comprehensive

language development program appear in Enright and McCloskey (1988), and more information on planning for cooperative learning appears in Chapter 4 of this volume and in the sample activities and lessons in Chapters 5-11. Instructors interested in using a cooperative approach to second language development must determine how it fits with their instructional goals, classroom composition, and resources. Thoughtful advance planning and ongoing support for the cooperative process are essential for successful use.

Instructional Goals

The matter of instructional goals is primary. If material to be conveyed is very cognitively demanding, teachers may wish to preview it in the native language before having students take part in cooperative activities. (See Chapter 7 for examples of such preview activities.) If the cognitive demand is relatively low, techniques that involve considerable non-verbal support, realia, and manipulation of materials can provide the necessary framework for comprehension. The instructors's cognitive, content-area goals must thus be identified.

Language Development Goals

The language development goals of any activity should also be determined. Is an activity meant to provide simply initial exposure to selected structures and vocabulary in the second language? Is it meant to offer first as well as second language development? Is it aimed at allowing a great deal of active, interactive oral language, or reading, or writing? By selecting the major language development goals, teachers can then see what kinds of cooperative activities best serve their students in building up a full complement of second language skills.

Classroom Composition

- ***Incorporation of Range of Proficiency***

The question of the appropriate mix of proficiency levels for different cooperative activities must also be answered. We know that team membership should not be static; we need to know how we can choose cooperative activities that make it possible for students of different proficiency levels to work productively together. Also, teachers need to know how to work with students still in the silent period of second language acquisition, who may not be able to take an active role in second language activities. Possibilities for first language materials and peer support need to be explored.

- ***Effect of Other Pupil Characteristics***

Pupil characteristics besides second language proficiency affect the choice of cooperative models. Evidence to date indicates that, in mainstream classrooms, such factors as age, gender, and ability levels affect student participa-

tion in cooperative learning (Webb & Kenderski, 1985). We have already observed that students from some ethnic groups show greater preference for cooperative activity than others. Educators need to identify other social and demographic influences that shape learning preferences in order to be able to implement cooperative approaches successfully.

Resources to Support Cooperative Learning

Finally, educators interested in cooperative learning must take stock of the resources available to them. Most critical is the matter of good, ongoing teacher training and coaching. Change of any sort takes time and patience, and teachers making efforts to expand their own skills to be able to manage and facilitate cooperative learning need continuous assistance from sympathetic experts, mentor teachers, and each other. Another essential resource is time, time for teacher training and time to orient students and prepare them for their new roles in cooperative work. Material resources also figure into the decision; many cooperative activities require the use of innovative materials in order to make learning tasks concrete. Such materials need not be expensive, but they require time to locate and assemble so that activities can proceed smoothly.

Final Remarks

All decisions regarding the implementation of cooperative learning will ultimately reflect individual circumstances. Chapters 5-11 of this volume provide a place to begin to test the promise of cooperative learning in different situations of second language development. It is clear that cooperative work offers great potential for improving both second language acquisition and academic achievement for students from diverse language backgrounds. The challenge for interested educators is twofold: to see how cooperative learning can best work for them and their students and to see how cooperative approaches can be combined with traditional instructional formats to offer students experience with a wider range of learning environments. Cooperative learning works by generating varied paths of access to language and academic knowledge based on students' interactions with each other and with the teacher. It is thus a way to empower them (Cummins, 1986) to deal with new information and forms of communication. Teachers, too, become empowered in learning to build pedagogical skills that advance student capabilities. In classrooms where linguistic and cultural diversity are common, cooperative learning promises some of the flexibility to help students and teachers make the process of instruction more varied and personally engaging and, thus, more effective.

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4

Principles of Cooperative Learning for Language and Content Gains

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Cooperative learning, as described and illustrated in this book, makes more readily available to students the content of the curriculum and the language needed to process it. By providing a variety of ways to expose students to academic content and creating different situations in which they experience and discuss curricular content, cooperative learning serves both language and content curriculum goals. Through cooperative learning there is improved comprehension and production of language, and both these outcomes aid attainment of subject matter goals. As input is made more comprehensible, the probability of acquiring language increases as does access to the curriculum. As language output increases, so does the probability of obtaining and retaining new linguistic abilities as well as subject matter. Further, as students interact during cooperative learning, the goals of increasing comprehensibility of input and increasing the quantity and quality of language production complement each other. That is, through the negotiation process, the language production of one student becomes the comprehensible input for another. Thus, cooperative learning simultaneously aids the understanding and practice of both language and content.

This chapter examines the interface between the principles of cooperative learning and the principles of second language acquisition. It suggests that cooperative learning provides a means for placing into practice the principles of language acquisition. There are three very general guidelines to follow in increasing the language and content gains of language minority students: (1) increase the comprehensibility of content-related language input; (2) increase the quantity and quality of language production related to the content, including negotiation among students; and (3) create a safe and supportive learning environment within which students can acquire and practice language. These guidelines are realized as students interact cooperatively with each other over subject matter. Before examining the relation of cooperative learning to the principles of language acquisition, the essential aspects of second language learning are reviewed.

Three Principles of Second Language Acquisition

The principles of second language acquisition, drawn from current theory and research on second language acquisition processes, provide a guideline for planning cooperative group activities. More importantly, they provide a yardstick that can be used to measure the extent to which any educational strategy is structured in ways likely to facilitate language acquisition. There are three essential aspects of the second language acquisition process: (1) plentiful and appropriate input, which provides multiple exposures to language forms and uses in a natural context; (2) frequent opportunities for interaction related to real communicative needs, including demands that meaning be negotiated between speakers to assure mutual comprehension; and (3) an environment that puts learners at ease and so encourages efforts to communicate. These three requisites for language acquisition operate in natural situations and in classrooms; the challenge for those interested in facilitating second language acquisition in schools is to ensure that the techniques chosen meet these conditions.

Input

The principle of plentiful, appropriate, and comprehensible input predicts that language acquisition begins with substantial exposure to the language through observation and limited participation. However, optimal input is not simply all the language available in the environment; the exposure is not random, but focused on activities meaningful to the person who is learning to speak. The incipient speaker hears many different language forms repeated and experiences the redundancy of language naturally. In the case of first language acquisition, such input is accomplished as caretakers talk to children and children participate in the routines of daily life. They experience similar situations accompanied by similar language forms, so that language and meaning are linked in a natural, experiential cluster.

In providing appropriate input for second language acquisition and development in the classroom, teachers are faced with several factors that alter but do not obviate the first language parallel. Students still need multiple, redundant opportunities to experience the second language as related to recurring tasks. They need to see how language conveys meaning in context prior to experiencing language only in the form of texts. They need to be provided with nonverbal and verbal ways to indicate comprehension of language even when their production abilities are limited.

Furthermore, second language learners in a classroom setting are not identical to first language learners in some important cognitive respects. They are older; they have already developed both a store of world knowledge and, to one degree or another, first language capabilities in understanding and expressing meaning. In learning a second language, school-based learners need

to be able to draw on their world knowledge and on their first language abilities to deal efficiently with complex content. It follows naturally, then, that second language acquisition, particularly acquisition of varied vocabulary and complex structures, will be more efficient if it can tap the speaker's existing cognitive apparatus. Using considerable visual support, providing manipulative materials, listening to classmates and teammates talk about activities and ideas, and, where the content warrants and class composition allows, using explanations in the first language to facilitate rapid understanding are all ways that the principle of abundant comprehensible input can be realized. The first principle of language acquisition, then, holds that learners need access to multiple sources of meaningful language to begin to acquire competence in a new language.

Interaction and Negotiation

- ***Interaction***

The second principle of language acquisition is that language is mastered though interaction with other speakers. In first language acquisition, exchanges between young learners and already competent adult speakers of the language offer multiple opportunities for learners to hear their own ideas reflected and expanded upon and practice the role of conversation partner. To borrow a term from Vygotsky, interaction in the learner's "zone of proximal development"—the area that is just in advance of his or her ability to operate independently but still within comprehension—is the means by which growth of knowledge takes place (Cazden, 1986; Vygotsky, 1978). It is, in addition, from the interactionist point of view, the means by which language proficiency comes about. In the classroom, verbal interaction through pair or group discussion supplies the conversational support, or scaffolding, needed to help learners express ideas in advance of their level of mastery. To develop language, learners must interact in the language. Increasing the frequency and variety of the verbal interaction in which learners participate thus becomes a major goal of any instructional approach that seeks to draw on the principles suggested by second language acquisition research.

For teachers, this means providing a classroom where students participate in many types of interactions as listeners and as speakers. As students listen to the teacher, to other students, and to themselves engaged in talking about curricular content, they receive not just input but input that is tailored to the needs of the participants through the process of interaction. Work with partners and small groups is critical in increasing the variety and range of interactions in which students take part, for these group structures make it possible for students to talk to other students as well as to the teacher and thus produce more language related to academic content. In linguistically diverse classrooms, appropriate group composition is one key to effective interaction. Balancing

the linguistic and cognitive demands of the material to be learned necessitates changing group composition to provide for different types of interaction in the first or second language. The guiding principle, though, is that interaction with different speakers in different group settings is essential to second language development. Hence, the importance of simultaneous rather than sequential language use in cooperative classrooms. Providing opportunities for many students to speak at the same time, instead of waiting for each member of the class to contribute, multiplies the opportunities for interaction. Using a whole-class structure in a class of thirty students, it would take thirty minutes for each student to speak for one minute. In pair work, it would take only two minutes. But perhaps more importantly, when the students are in the whole-class structure, they are not interacting, but rather only answering questions directed to them by the teacher. In contrast, during the pair work they use language through meaningful interaction and negotiation.

- ***Negotiation***

Particularly important for language acquisition are exchanges that require learners to negotiate meaning: that is, to clarify what others say to them and make efforts to express themselves clearly. In tasks that demand exchange of information, the process of negotiating meaning gives learners a natural context that promotes accuracy, clarity, and relevance in communication. It is not enough simply to interact in the language; learners must have the responsibility of making their own contributions to the discussion, for in so doing they solidify and expand their communicative resources. Learners need to participate in exchanges that require them to convey information with sufficient accuracy and completeness to further the task. Again, then, a goal of cooperative activities that aim to build second language skill is the creation of opportunities for students to ask for clarification and refine their own meanings as they complete curricular tasks. They need to make the language and the content of the curriculum their own by having opportunities to talk with each other, refine and restate meanings, expand vocabulary, and relate language to classroom activities and personal experiences.

If individual accountability is built into group activities, the resulting interaction is much more likely to satisfy the principle of negotiation. Each student must be responsible for some aspect of the interaction in order to ensure that tasks are completed correctly. Group structures and student role assignments within the groups require careful planning to give each student an appropriate level of responsibility. What is critical is that individual students be required to exchange information and resources accurately in order to achieve team or group success. This creates the communicative press to ask questions and strive to produce output comprehensible to the listener. It is the negotiation, then, not solely the interaction, that promotes the comprehensible output needed to achieve full proficiency in a language.

Learning Environment

To make it possible for learners to use available input, and to support both interaction and negotiation, it is vital to create a learning environment that combines high interest with lowered learner anxiety and positive encouragement for communicative effort. The environment must be one where efforts at language use are supported and students feel secure enough to venture use of the new language to express ideas. The classroom environment is one where second language acquisition is supported both cognitively and socially; this means providing a rich, non-verbal context for acquisition of knowledge and language along with a social atmosphere that encourages active involvement.

The principle of positive interdependence in cooperative learning is one means to this end; if the gains of each student are experienced as gains for all, students will work to ensure that teammates understand the learning tasks and will provide the necessary information. Further, when students perceive themselves to be "all on the same side," they create for each other a positive, supportive, non-threatening learning environment. The preparation for group learning through the modeling of social skills related to language use also serves to lower less proficient students' fears of making errors and encourages the more proficient students to offer help in polite, non-threatening ways.

For second language learners, access to curricular content in a low-anxiety environment contributes to second language mastery. Hence, provision of a positive social climate in the classroom is a condition that enables learners to have access to more language and feel they can take more risks in trying to use the second language. The various cooperative learning structures also make it possible for learners to practice language with partners and in small groups before trying to use it in a large, public forum such as whole-class discussion. Thus, the structuring of cooperative relations among students is one means of providing an atmosphere that encourages rather than inhibits second language development.

Second language research related to content-based instruction suggests that students acquire language effectively when their attention is on something other than language; motivation to learn interesting content includes language as a means to an end rather than as an end in itself (Genesee, 1987). As students interact and negotiate over interesting problems in cooperative groups, they focus on the content rather than on the language, facilitating language acquisition.

Both the principles of cooperative learning and the major elements of cooperative learning methods work to allow the realization of the three requisites of second language acquisition. The interface between the second language acquisition principles and the principles of cooperative learning are summarized in Table 1. Table 2 is a summary of the relation between the language acquisition principles and selected major elements of cooperative learning. The sections that follow discuss the contents of the charts in detail.

Table 1

Cooperative Learning and Language Acquisition

Cooperative Learning Principles	Language Acquisition Principles		
	Input: Varied, Redundant, Meaningful	Output: Interaction, Negotiation, Practice	Context: Supportive, Nonthreatening
Positive Interdependence	Students are motivated to explain and ensure comprehension among teammates, because success of the team depends on each individual.	All must contribute for the team to be successful. Rewards for groups are based on achievement of all, leading teammates to help those who need practice. Negotiation is necessary to complete projects.	Teammates are all on the same side—"We sink or swim together." Thus, they offer support, encouragement, tutoring, and help. Gains by one individual are perceived as gains by all.
Individual Accountability	Teammates know where to direct help to ensure understanding and task completion.	Each student has a unique contribution to the team, necessitating interaction and negotiation.	Teammates are motivated to give each teammate help and encouragement, and they know where to direct it.
Social Skill Development	Linguistic skills associated with the social skills are taught directly. Roles are displayed, charted, and modeled. Gambits associated with each skill are introduced.	Students practice linguistic functions (polite disagreement, praise, or paraphrasing) associated with social skills.	Social skills increase peer support, and the group becomes a safe arena for practicing unfamiliar language forms.
Simultaneity; Interaction	As students work simultaneously in pairs and small groups, they adjust speech to the listener, increasing comprehensible input.	Students in pairs and small groups ask questions, negotiate meaning, and practice language. Simultaneity increases language production—pair work produces 15 times the language as does whole class.	To speak to one, two, or three others is less threatening than it is to speak before a group of 30.

Table 2

Language and Content Gains through Cooperative Learning Elements

Cooperative Learning Elements	Language Acquisition Principles		
	Input: Varied, Redundant, Meaningful	**Output: Interaction, Negotiation, Practice**	**Context: Supportive, Nonthreatening**
Team Formation	Input is made comprehensible by use of language-level teams. Some teams work in home language, while others work in sheltered or in English-only classes.	In heterogeneous teams students negotiate meaning as they interact to complete their team projects.	Homogeneous language teams during initial input of difficult, abstract materials increase understanding and decrease anxiety.
Team Building	Activities often are associated with realia and a meaningful context.	Students negotiate and participate as they reach a consensus on team decisions such as choosing the team's name.	Team building creates a safe atmosphere through activities for mutual support, getting acquainted, and valuing individual differences.
Class Building	Activities are tailored to language level, including nonverbal and limited-language activities. Students work with many different classmates.	Practice with many individuals increases linguistic redundancy.	The class becomes a safe environment in which students practice new language forms.
Role Assignment	A checker for understanding, a bilingual facilitator, and cross-grade facilitators ensure comprehension. Roles provide a meaningful context.	Students practice gambits associated with roles such as praising, reporting, and paraphrasing. The gatekeeper ensures that all students participate.	The encourager, the praiser, and the bilingual facilitator all work to create a supportive atmosphere.
Processing	Students discuss how to make input understood, and they work out a plan to ensure that everyone understands the input.	Meaningful negotiation over important issues occurs as team members discuss how well they are working together.	The students discuss issues such as how well they are encouraging and praising each other and how they can work more cooperatively.
Structures	Input is tailored to the students' proficiency level via structures such as workstation, Jigsaw, Partners, Jigsaw Twins, or homogeneous Expert Groups. Inside-Outside Circle provides redundancy as students practice with each other.	Structures such as Talking Chips, Three-Step Interview, Pairs Check, Color-Coded Co-op Cards ensure participation of all. Pairs Check and the Co-op Cards provide repeated practice on needed items. Co-op Co-op requires interaction and negotiation.	Structures provide clear steps and procedures that reduce anxiety. Structures include specific steps designed to create support, such as the praisers in Pairs Check or the Co-op Cards.

Cooperative Learning Principles for Language and Content Gains

Table 1 illustrates the relationship between cooperative learning and language acquisition. The following section describes this relationship in detail by describing how each principle of cooperative learning enhances the development of content-related language and language in general. Chapters 7-11 contain examples of how these principles can be implemented.

Positive Interdependence

When students are positively interdependent, gains for one are related to gains for all, and students feel they are on the same side. Whether positive interdependence is created by the task structure (having one project, the successful completion of which depends on the contribution of each member) or the reward structure (having a team grade which depends on the grades of each member), positive interdependence leads to high motivation for students to make sure that everyone understands the task and performs or learns at his or her best. Students know that they are all in the same boat, that they will "sink or swim together" (Johnson, Johnson, & Holubec, 1986). As a result, team members make sure that teammates understand the directions, they tutor or practice with students when needed, they encourage each other and make sure that everyone finishes their tasks. Through this process, there is increased content-related comprehensible language input and production, and an increased likelihood that the discourse is appropriately tuned to each participant.

Individual Accountability

Individual accountability takes many different forms. In the Interview structure, students are made individually accountable for listening. That is, following the interviews, each student has a turn sharing with the group what he or she has heard from a teammate. In STAD, individual accountability means that each student's score contributes to the team score. In Finding Out/ Descubrimiento, each student must finish his or her assignment before any of the group members can move to the next learning center. In Co-op Co-op, each student must complete his or her mini-topic. Individual accountability is an important tool in reaching important goals for students with limited English proficiency; that is, ensuring that each student understands the learning tasks and content and is involved in content-related language production.

Social Skill Development

Associated with many forms of cooperative learning is an emphasis on the development of social skills. In various ways this leads to increased understanding and production of language. Students may learn specific functions

associated with social skills, such as how to compliment, paraphrase, and ask for and give task-related help. All of these skills have language development as an essential component.

Therefore, it is important that language forms related to social skills be taught to students through direct instruction, modeling, and practice. These forms become a part of the curriculum as teachers include a "skill of the week" as part of their lesson plans. These competencies are far more likely to be understood and used by students because they are learned in the context of real interaction, a learning process quite in contrast to the memorization of vocabulary and language outside the context of meaningful use.

An emphasis on social skills also serves to make the team a safe place to experiment with language. For example, students may learn how to disagree or help each other politely. Because of the social skill component, students who once were afraid to try new verbal structures know that their errors will meet with polite help rather than ridicule. Students who are still learning English feel safe to increase language production.

The Simultaneity Principle

Language and cognitive development are increased if, whenever possible, teachers choose simultaneous rather than sequential structures. For example, following a group discussion, if a teacher asks a reporter from each team to summarize for the class the main points of the discussion, only 1 out of 30 students has a language production opportunity at any moment. If, instead, the teacher has a student from each team form a pair with a student from another team to summarize the main points of the discussion, half the students in the class are producing language at any moment. Kagan (1991) has distinguished a variety of simultaneous modes of sharing designed to increase participation and interaction among students.

Having as many students as possible working in pairs at the same time is ideal for increasing language production and language comprehensibility. As students negotiate meaning, they adjust their speech to ensure comprehension of the listener, especially if the interaction is over a topic related to outcomes for the team. Because of positive interdependence, the speakers must make themselves understood if the team is to succeed.

Based on the simultaneity principle, we can conclude that smaller teams are generally preferable to larger teams for language learning. For example, expert groups in Jigsaw II might have eight students each. However, if "Double Expert Groups" are formed, the team size becomes four, and the ratio of students producing language at any one time increases from one out of eight to one out of four. Similarly, if Interview (in which students interact in pairs within teams) is chosen over Group Discussion (in which one student at a time talks within the team), the language experience per student is doubled. In general, groups of four are effective for language learning because they facili-

tate pair work within teams, and pair work maximizes the amount of interaction among students.

If Group Discussion is used, language experience and cognitive development are provided for far more students if, following the discussion, each team simultaneously shares with the team next to it or sends representatives to the board to write their best ideas while the groups continue to interact, rather than if one person at a time from each team shares with the whole class.

Cooperative Learning Elements for Language and Content Gains

Specific elements of cooperative learning are especially important for students from diverse language backgrounds. The following section describes in detail the ways in which these elements promote the learning of both language and content. This section is summarized in Table 2. Examples of these elements are found in Chapters 7-11.

Team Formation

- *Heterogeneity Versus Homogeneity*

A number of researchers and theorists have taken heterogeneity of teams as a defining characteristic of cooperative learning. Heterogeneous teams are usually formed by having one high-, two middle- and one low-achieving student on each team and attempting to make the team diverse in gender and ethnicity. In general, heterogeneous teams have been preferred because they (1) produce the greatest opportunities for peer tutoring and support; (2) improve cross-race relations and integration; and (3) make classroom management easier. Having a high achiever on each team can be like having one instructional assistant for every three students. Non-heterogeneous teams can be formed in a variety of ways, including self-selection (allowing students to group themselves by friendships or interests) or random selection (students draw a number from 1 to 8 for team assignments). Self-selection runs a strong risk of promoting or reinforcing status hierarchies in the classroom; random selection runs the risk of creating "loser" teams (four low achievers may end up on the same team if it is left to the luck of the draw). Thus, in general, heterogeneous, teacher-formed teams have been preferred, and some theorists have referred to heterogeneity of teams as a basic principle of cooperative learning.

However, a general principle of instruction in settings in which there are non-native English speakers is that students with different levels of English language proficiency and academic achievement need different kinds of input; for example, lower level students need more context and less cognitively demanding materials. Therefore, at certain points in the instructional cycle, and especially when there is demanding content and a wide range of language

abilities, homogeneous teams are desirable. For example, LEP students grouped according to English language proficiency may be given instruction in specialized English tailored to their proficiency level. At other times, LEP students may be grouped according to primary language proficiency and given instruction in their native language. During this time, monolingual English speakers and fully English proficient students may be working in English in their groups. Thus, a fourth and often desirable basis of team formation exists: homogeneous grouping by language abilities or needs. Such grouping can allow students at various levels of language proficiency to interact simultaneously, so that a greater number of students are working in their linguistic zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978).

Occasional or even frequent use of homogeneous grouping of students by language ability facilitates instruction of students from diverse language backgrounds. Whole-class instruction often leads to teaching a few students at the expense of others; cooperative learning with exclusively heterogeneous groups may not give all students access to appropriate language and content instruction.

- ***Balancing Heterogeneity and Homogeneity***

The use of both heterogeneous and homogeneous teams, properly balanced, can maximize the positive academic, linguistic, and social outcomes for language minority students. In general, the use of homogeneous groups provides comprehensible instruction, equal access to the curriculum for all students, and the context for later work in heterogeneous groups in which the range of language proficiencies is greater. Heterogeneous language groups facilitate social and racial integration, as well as opportunities for practice and application of both language and content. The more demanding or unfamiliar the content, the lower the English language abilities of the students, or the greater the range of English language proficiencies, the more a teacher must forego exclusive use of heterogeneous groups in favor of occasional or even frequent use of homogeneous groups formed according to language proficiency.

Nevertheless, even if homogeneous language groups are used, there should always be some use of heterogeneous or random groups to lower the potential of the emergence of status hierarchies that may accompany segregation of students by language. Exclusive use of stable homogeneous grouping can lead to the formation of undesirable, stable status hierarchies and a polarization of the class; even in classrooms in which homogeneous language groups are desirable much of the time, there is a need to avoid fixed stereotypes by use of occasional heterogeneous team formation and class building activities.

There are some interesting ways to obtain the positive outcomes associated with both homogeneous and heterogeneous teams. In Jigsaw, students may be in heterogeneous home teams and homogeneous expert groups. A second

method, possible if there are sufficient numbers of students from each primary language, is to create both heterogeneous and homogeneous teams. Homogeneous teams are grouped according to primary language proficiency and heterogeneous teams by gender and ability level. Having two sets of teams in the classroom allows teachers to give initial and demanding content in the students' primary language or specially designed English, ensuring that language will not be a barrier to the content. After the initial instruction or activities in the homogeneous language teams, students can return to their heterogeneous teams to discuss the material in English.

To form the teams, the teacher first divides the class by primary language and then assigns heterogeneous groups within each of the language groups. Thus, a heterogeneous team may have a high-, two middle-, and a low-achieving student working together in English; a homogeneous team may have four LEP students with a range of achievement levels working together in their primary language. The LEP students have two sets of team identities. They break out from their heterogeneous teams into LEP teams during initial input or "preview" of demanding material or at other times when primary language or specially-designed English instruction would aid in delivery of the content. Alternatively, for some activities, the teacher may use random team formation among all of the students who are to work in English, and a second random team formation for all the students who are to work in a language other than English.

When assigning LEP students to teams where they will work in their native language, it is very important for the teacher to determine the students' level of proficiency in their primary language. Students with the same primary language have various proficiencies in their oral/aural, reading, and writing skills. Students assigned to homogeneous LEP teams according to primary language should represent a range of these skills so that they can give and receive help to their team members.

In determining the extent to which groups should be homogeneous or heterogeneous with regard to language abilities, instructional objectives must be considered. In planning a lesson for a classroom with LEP students, perhaps the first question should be, "Is the principal objective of the lesson a language objective or a content objective?" In general, if the principal objective is content, then groups should be structured so that language is not a barrier to content acquisition. For LEP students, this means giving them support in the group to interact in their primary language or providing them specially designed instruction in English. If English language acquisition is the primary objective, as in an ESL lesson, groups might be structured so that English is used almost exclusively, but the level of language and amount of contextual cues are appropriate to the proficiency level of students. There are a number of ways to accomplish these goals, many of which allow the language and content objectives to be reached simultaneously.

Grouping will differ depending on the nature of each classroom and the instructional objectives. If there are many LEP students who share a primary language, the class may be divided some of the time so that teams work in homogeneous primary language groups. Some groups may be working in English while others work in their primary language, while yet others work in both languages. In a classroom of all LEP students with similar beginning-level English language proficiency, there may be no need to group homogeneously, and the heterogeneity principle can be followed exclusively. However, in a classroom where content is the principal objective and the staff is capable of teaching in the students' primary language, it may be advantageous to have homogeneous groups according to primary language.

In a classroom that is part of a school-wide program that stresses primary language development, more use of homogeneous primary language groups would be expected than in programs that provide only very limited access to primary language instruction. Thus, the classroom structures must be coordinated with the broader program objectives.

Team Building

There are a variety of team building activities designed to help students get to know each other, build a positive sense of team identity, accept individual differences, provide mutual support, and develop a sense of synergy (Kagan, 1991). These outcomes are especially important in classrooms where language and ethnic diversity can become obstacles to learning. Team building activities include deciding on a team name; creating a team handshake, banner, or cheer; and developing trust among team members through activities like a "care walk" in which students form pairs and lead their blindfolded partners on a tour of the room. Many of the team building activities provide a supportive context for language and content acquisition and involve negotiation over meaningful topics. As the students come to consensus on a team name or team banner, they learn to seek and respect all opinions, thus easing the transition into learning content together. When team members trust and accept each other, they provide a safe atmosphere for learning. Using language and discussing content with three supportive team members is far easier than with 30 others in a competitive classroom.

Class Building

Class building includes activities in which students create positive bonds to others in their class. Class building activities and structures include Formations, Similarity Grouping, Corners, and Inside-Outside Circle. In all of these, students have repeated opportunities to interact in a supportive environment with large numbers of fellow students in the classroom. These opportunities are basic to language acquisition as they can provide a rich array of linguistic

models, transference opportunities, and redundancy of language. They are important for content acquisition in that they lay the foundation for successful groupwork related to academic subject areas. Some of the class building structures can be almost non-verbal, providing the opportunity to integrate students who are very limited in English with fellow class members. For example, in Formations, students as a whole class may form one large letter or number, spell out a word, or become a picture of an object, by holding hands. Formations can be done without speaking, giving LEP students the opportunity for full involvement. As class building creates a cooperative tone in the classroom, the classroom becomes a safer place to seek explanations and to learn language and content.

Class building and team building strategies are especially important to employ when cooperative groups include students who have had little experience with group work. For example, some language minority students come from countries where they had very few opportunities to work in groups. Because they are accustomed to whole-class instruction with the teacher as the sole source of information, these students need class building and team building experiences that create positive relationships with other students in the class and the group.

Role Assignments

A variety of role assignments during cooperative learning are especially helpful in classrooms with LEP students. The following are some examples:

- ***Checker***

The person given the role of checker may have the responsibility of checking for preparation, completeness, agreement, or understanding among the teammates. "Captain Sure" makes sure that all teammates understand. The checker role may be used with a variety of structures. For example, Captain Sure makes sure all the students understand how to do a problem in Numbered Heads Together or sees that everyone has completed his or her assignment. If the team includes an LEP student, checking for understanding becomes a critical role for ensuring comprehension and facilitating language production.

Similarly, LEP students can assume a variety of roles that will help their team members in the group. It is important for the teacher to rotate roles among group members so that all students are viewed as capable of helping each other.

- ***Bilingual Facilitator***

The Bilingual Facilitator can play an important role within a team or the class. The teacher may identify students who are proficient in both English and their primary language and who are performing well in the content area and train them to be Bilingual Facilitators. The teacher should teach them special

skills for working with LEP students, such as giving task-related help, checking for comprehension, and encouraging discussion. Following this special training, the Bilingual Facilitator may serve in the capacity of a student instructional assistant during portions of the learning unit. It is important to note that the Bilingual Facilitator is not a translator; rather than translate every word, the role consists of negotiating meaning and understanding.

- ***Cross-Grade Facilitators***

For younger students or for students for whom there are not enough Bilingual Facilitators, special teaching roles can be assigned to older students. These students may have served as Bilingual Facilitators, as teachers in expert groups, or as special tutors for LEP students.

- ***Special Roles***

The needs of LEP students are sometimes accommodated by special roles. For example, during a Co-op Co-op project, a recently arrived non-English-speaking student was assigned the role of holding up cue cards during a team presentation. Another teacher created a sense of inclusion for some students with very limited English on their first day of class by assigning them the role of "praisers"; their very first English language experiences involved learning some praising phrases.

Processing

Processing occurs following cooperative learning units or parts of units. During processing, students are given time to discuss questions such as, "Did we all participate?" "Have we made efforts to include all group members?" "Did we give help when asked?" "Did we ask for help when we did not understand?" "What can we do to make sure every student does his or her best?" When engaged in processing, students should also ask questions regarding the academic content of the lesson. The questions should address points that summarize what the students learned and preview what might come in the next lesson. Often, team members commit themselves to a team plan regarding how they can improve the understanding and participation of all members. Processing is likely to be of particular benefit to LEP students as it will increase comprehension, peer support, and participation. The processing itself is an excellent arena for language learning as students discuss real events that have a concrete reference in the experience of each student.

Structures & Structuring

Appropriate instruction in diverse language settings depends on respecting the domain of usefulness of each structure. For example, Roundrobin, which does not require writing, is appropriate at an earlier stage of language development than Roundtable, because the latter requires that students write their

responses. Jigsaw, on the other hand, is linguistically more demanding than either Roundtable or Roundrobin, because it often depends on reading and writing ability, as well as on sophisticated aural/oral skills. When teachers are well versed in cooperative learning, they can select and modify structures to maximize content and language learning.

- *Jigsaw*

Originally developed by Elliot Aronson, Jigsaw lends itself particularly well to the diverse language classroom because students are members of both a home team and an expert group. Expert groups are formed by identifying one member of each home team who will become an "expert" on a particular topic or a particular aspect of a task. The expert group works together to master the material or task, then they return to their home teams to teach their teammates what they learned. Initial input may be given in the expert group in the students' primary language. Once students are familiar with the concepts, they return to heterogeneous home teams to discuss in English the concepts they have acquired. Thus, initial input is made comprehensible through homogeneous expert groups, but extended language and concept development is also provided students in their heterogeneous home teams. (See Aronson et al., 1978, for more on Jigsaw.)

- *Workstation Jigsaw*

Access to content can be enhanced for LEP students by non-text input, including filmstrips, heavy reliance on manipulatives and realia, and special workstations where students can receive instruction that is responsive to their needs. For example, LEP expert groups in Jigsaw may be formed homogeneously according to English language proficiency. Students can then receive instruction that is appropriate for their level of language proficiency.

- *Twins*

The most frequently used team size is four. A four-member team allows simultaneous pair work and avoids the problem of a "third person out," which may occur in a triad when two members pair. It is sometimes adaptive in Jigsaw to assign a five-member team which allows the creation of twins. Twins consist of an LEP student paired with a Bilingual Facilitator or other supportive student. When the students leave their teams to go to the expert group, the twins leave as a pair and have the shared responsibility of reporting back to the group. Twinning ensures that LEP students have access to the content, and that the group is not disadvantaged due to any student's inability to share information.

- *Individualization*

Some structures allow individualization to maximize appropriate language and content experiences. For example, in Color-Coded Co-op Cards, some

students might be working at the recognition level, whereas other students might be working at the production level; some students might have cards with picture cues while others have less context-embedded cards. In Co-op Co-op, each student's mini-topic might be designed with language issues in mind. For example, some students might be provided extensive realia to ensure that input regarding their mini-topic is made comprehensible.

Micro Structuring

Cooperative structures can be adjusted to enhance their conformity with one or more of the principles of cooperative learning discussed above. For example, having a group of four form pairs increases individual accountability in the team. Such adjustments, or "micro structuring," also have the effect of increasing the quantity and quality of language input and output in a variety of ways. Without micro structuring, there is no assurance that all students will participate or that they will make language comprehensible to each other. For example, if students are working in groups and are simply told to fill out a worksheet without any micro structuring, they may settle on the following pattern: Each student works in his or her own book; the high achiever generally finds the answer; he or she points to the place in the book so that all students can copy what the text says. If micro structuring were used, the interaction could be different: Students are given one book per pair; they are instructed to work in pairs and read to each other alternate paragraphs; if both students in a pair believe they have found an answer, they are to check for agreement with the other pair before anyone writes an answer. Such adjustments ensure that more students will produce language and that they will make their input understandable as they negotiate for the correct answer. Micro structuring in this way serves the related goals of language and content acquisition.

Micro structuring can increase student-student communication. During Corners, if the teacher lets students discuss why they chose the corner they did, without micro structuring, it is likely that four students in the classroom will produce oral language at any one time, one in each corner. If instead, when the students go to their corners, the teacher says, "Turn to the person next to you and share why you chose the corner you did," then half the class is producing language and discussing concepts at any one moment.

Micro structuring can make a fundamental difference in the amount and kind of linguistic interaction among students during almost any structure or activity. Let us contrast the construction of a team mural with and without micro structuring. Without micro structuring, the teacher gives each team a piece of butcher paper and lets students work as they wish in making the mural. It is quite likely that on many teams each student will take out his or her colors and work alone on some corner of the mural, significantly reducing

interactive learning. In contrast, using micro structuring the teacher might do the following:

- Give students time to discuss in teams the pros and cons of two murals. Mural #1 has an all-red rainbow, an all-blue rainbow, an all-yellow house, and an all-green tree. Mural #2 has a four-color rainbow and a tree with green leaves, a red apple, and a brown trunk.
- Announce that a team mural is to be made with only four colors, and each person is to use only one color.
- Give the students time to create a team plan regarding what their mural will look like and who will do what. They must all agree on a team plan before they can take out their crayons.

As can be seen in this example, micro structuring increases the probability of discussion, negotiation, and interpretation.

Conclusion

If we take the principles of second language acquisition as our measure for evaluating instructional programs for students from diverse language backgrounds, we find that compared to the cooperative approach, the traditional, whole-class approach comes up short with regard to all three requisites for second language learning

Input

In the traditional classroom, input is often not comprehensible. The structure forces the teacher to tailor instruction either to the English-proficient students and "lose" the LEP students, or to the LEP students, using either their primary language or specialized English approaches, which fails to keep the English-proficient students fully involved. In contrast, with cooperative learning groups, the teacher can use the students' primary language or specially designed English to work with some groups, while others work in mainstream English. Thus, more students are working at an appropriate level of language and concept development. For all groups, input is made comprehensible through the negotiation process inherent in cooperative learning.

Interaction and Negotiation

The traditional classroom also comes up short if we consider its ability to stimulate interaction and negotiation. In the traditional, whole-class format, most speech by students is limited to short answers to questions posed by the teacher. At best, the communication is characterized by simple, two-step transactions: a question followed by an answer. Thus, students do not have the

opportunity to acquire and practice numerous response modes, such as asking for clarification, checking for understanding, providing clarification, expressing unsolicited opinions, and especially, negotiating meaning.

Cooperative learning, on the other hand, allows all of these forms of interaction. Communication is learned in realistic situations, minimizing the problem of transfer from the hypothetical to the real. If students learn to praise, question, express ideas, seek participation of others, disagree, build on the ideas of others, and seek consensus in the process of real communication, they will learn skills useful in life. If, however, they practice verbal skills out of the context of real interaction, they may or may not use those skills in real-life situations. We have had generations of students who have learned French, German, or Spanish in foreign language classrooms. Many did well in class, memorized the verb conjugations and vocabulary, scored well on weekly tests, only to have the disconcerting experience of traveling abroad and discovering that their formal, out-of-context learning had no direct relation to actual use of the language in real-life situations. Learning vocabulary and even sentence structures out of the context of communication and negotiation often amounts to learning *about* the language, rather than learning to *use* it.

Learning Environment

Perhaps the most important difference between cooperative and traditional approaches is the level of support provided by the two environments. Traditional classrooms are competitive environments. Over and over is repeated the following scenario:

> *The teacher asks a question. Ten hands wave in the air for the teacher's attention. The teacher calls on one student. At that moment the other nine hands go down as the students register a little subvocal protest or disappointment. Now the student who was called upon begins to answer. Unsure of either the content or the language, the student begins to stumble. At that moment, like sharks in the water, the other nine students sense an opportunity. They become excited; they will have a second opportunity to win the teacher's approval. Their hands shoot up and begin to wave again. The original speaker slumps down in the chair, eyes lowered.*

The traditional classroom sets up negative interdependence among students so that the failure of one increases the probability of success of another. It can be argued that the traditional classroom is exquisitely designed to extinguish language and concept development among students. Would an intelligent person be willing to experiment with new and unfamiliar language forms in a room full of others who, rather than help, hope for their failure? An adaptive response in that situation is to remain mute.

Let us place for a moment the same students in a cooperative classroom. Each student is working with three other students. The students have engaged

in team building and social skill development activities, and they know each other well and have learned to provide support and assistance. Now, when one of them begins to hesitate because of not knowing the content or the language, the others move in to assist. They provide a needed word or help the student formulate an idea. They all know that there will be individual accountability on test day, and for their team to do well each of them must master the material. The gains of any student are met with appreciation by the team mates. Students feel the support of their teammates and feel safe to experiment with unfamiliar language forms and ideas. Talking and negotiating with three supportive others (or with just one other when pair work within teams is used) is far easier that giving a speech to 30 others in the evaluative environment of the whole class.

Summary

Learning environments built on the principles of cooperative learning and language acquisition provide students from diverse language backgrounds with optimal access to language and content learning. Teachers who expand their methodologies to include mutually reinforcing cooperative learning and language development approaches maximize their students' opportunities to comprehend and produce language and ideas that are understandable to them and their peers. As the language, content, and interpersonal barriers to the curriculum are lowered, an increasing number of students can benefit from their school experience and contribute to the future of society.

5

Using Cooperative Learning at the Elementary Level

Corine Madrid
South Whittier Elementary School District

New waves of immigrants since the mid-1970s have had an impact on schools in many American communities, but nowhere has it been greater than in California. According to the California Department of Education (1990b), there are approximately 589,374 limited-English-proficient (LEP) students at the elementary school level (K-6) in California, a 16% increase over 1989.

To meet the needs of elementary-level LEP students in oral language development and to ensure that they are given access to the core curriculum, teachers will benefit from an extensive repertoire of instructional strategies. With the support of administrators, teachers need to establish schools and classrooms where LEP students are integrated at appropriate times with non-LEP students in activities characterized by positive student-student interaction. The classroom setting should be one where there is minimal risk and a sense of belonging. Activities should be meaningful and collaborative, where students are encouraged to become responsible for their own learning as well as helping others to learn. Cooperative learning is one of the key instructional approaches that can be used to help accomplish these goals.

This chapter will address the use of cooperative learning to facilitate the education of LEP students at the elementary level in three areas: academic content, English language arts, and social skill development. It will focus on the use of cooperative learning in two instructional settings that are commonly found at the elementary level: one in which LEP students from a variety of language backgrounds are mixed with EO and FEP students and another in which LEP students from the same language background are placed with EO and FEP students.

Methods by which teachers can incorporate cooperative learning strategies in teaching language arts and History–Social science will be illustrated in a variety of mini-lessons in this chapter and in the model units in Chapters 7-9. The subject matter and lesson designs are based on the California Department of Education's *English–Language Arts Framework* (1987) and *History–Social Science Framework* (1988b). The mini-lessons have been designed to show how cooperative learning strategies can be used for varying lengths of time; a teacher may choose to use one or all of the activities for any lesson. The model units,

on the other hand, may be used over longer periods of time, each activity or structure building upon the other.

The Elementary LEP Student and English Language Development

Educators striving to develop the language skills of elementary LEP students face a high level of diversity among their students. LEP students come from a variety of countries, cultures, and language backgrounds. These children come to classrooms with various levels of English language proficiency. It is both more efficient and more effective to develop oral language skills through the language in which the child is most proficient (California Department of Education, 1990a). Because of the lack of staff, training, and materials, however, LEP students are sometimes placed in English language classes without proper support in their primary language. Whether LEP students' language skills are developed in English, their native language, or both, they should be learning in meaningful, well organized activities, some of which are cooperative. (For more on effective programs for LEP students, see California Department of Education, 1990a.)

In districts where many language groups are represented, LEP students may receive specialized English language development through "pull-out classes" or separate activities in the classroom a few times each week. They stay with the same level group and are given limited opportunities for structured interaction with proficient English speakers. Under these conditions, effective instruction requires coordination with the regular program so that the content of the ESL instruction will be drawn from the core subjects. Further, teachers should organize activities that promote positive, productive interactions between LEP students and proficient English speakers.

Student-student interaction promises to enhance the comprehensibility of instruction. Group or paired work where students work interdependently to accomplish a task, where LEP students are grouped together or with non-LEP students, is an effective way of ensuring language development. Cooperative learning allows for small group settings where LEP students are given the opportunity to speak without feeling threatened. They also gain more confidence in speaking in a group and become skilled listeners (see McGroarty, this volume).

The Elementary LEP Student and Academic Performance

LEP students at the elementary level face multiple challenges as they learn the skills required for academic success. Cooperative learning, by creating so-

cial support for academic achievement, provides students with a positive climate for learning how to be successful in school.

For LEP students who are 5 to 11 years old, coming to a classroom where only English is used can be a threatening experience. This is compounded if students do not feel as if they are part of the class. In a classroom where a dual language approach (i.e., instruction in two languages, such as English and Spanish) is used, the problems facing LEP students are alleviated by having a bilingual teacher who is able to communicate with the students in either language. Different demands are faced by teachers of students from a variety of language backgrounds in classrooms where English is the language of instruction. The cooperative structures and activities and model units in this volume illustrate how cooperative learning activities can improve instruction in both situations. These activities should be especially helpful to teachers who work with increasingly larger classes of students who have very diverse needs.

The variability among students in language proficiency, academic preparation, and school readiness is increasing in California's schools (Olsen & Chen, 1988). A traditional response to this diversity has been to place students with similar needs in homogeneous instructional groups. Reliance on this practice deprives students of the opportunity to interact with more proficient students and can create significant classroom management problems related to coordinating a large number of teacher-led groups.

Cooperative group work alleviates these problems by giving the students opportunities to learn together and help each other. For elementary students, collaborative activities help them develop study skills that are essential for learning academic subjects that become increasingly demanding. With the current emphasis on accountability for academic performance, cooperative learning gives teachers a tool for better preparing students to succeed on the many tests they will be required to take throughout elementary school.

The following experience illustrates the power of a cooperative strategy in helping LEP students adapt to the social and academic demands of school.

> *Whe, a five-year old Cambodian boy, enrolled in kindergarten in the middle of the year. After his father dropped him off at the classroom, he continued to cry. The other students were working in pairs, studying beginning sounds. Not having much success in settling him down, the teacher asked him to join two students who were looking through magazines for pictures of things that began with the letter "r." He stopped crying almost immediately as the students showed him pictures they had found, saying the words to him. They then showed him how to cut and paste the pictures on the newsprint. In the next few days, Whe's two team members cared for him as he made other new friends.*

The cooperative structures and activities and model units that follow show how LEP students can be successful in heterogeneous groups such as the one just described, as well as in homogeneous groups of all LEP students. They

illustrate how teachers can achieve a balance between homogeneous and heterogeneous groups. The key is to base grouping decisions on program goals, the needs of the students, the demands of the task, and available resources.

The Elementary LEP Student and Social Development

As the example of Whe indicates, the first day of school can be frightening to any child, especially for the LEP child who is trying to adjust to new surroundings, a new language, new foods, and so forth. Besides the demands of language and various content areas, there are numerous social adjustments required of LEP students. Many LEP students need extra time to make friends, probably because of their unfamiliarity with English and with school in general. These students often feel distant from their peers. LEP students will benefit from activities designed to facilitate the development of peer relationships. Cooperative learning can help all students learn group participation and other prosocial skills necessary for working together. LEP students, placed in a cooperative group, feel a sense of belonging. They learn to ask for and receive help. As others ask for their input, they learn that their suggestions are valued. They learn that their success is linked to the success of others.

Compared to secondary-level students, students in early elementary grades are not as race-conscious in their choice of friends and peer group associations. (See Slavin et al., 1985, for an elaboration of this point.) They will benefit, however, from activities designed to sustain and develop positive attitudes toward students from various racial and cultural backgrounds. Elementary students are conscious of other factors, such as academic achievement, personal appearance, and language proficiency, that cause some students to be considered at a higher status level than others. Successful cooperative group experiences help students to work together effectively, regardless of their race, language, or personal appearance. Students learn to regard their peers as valued sources of support in their effort to become successful socially, linguistically, and academically.

Instructional Settings at the Elementary Level

Unlike LEP students at the secondary level who move from classroom to classroom with different teachers, elementary LEP students usually remain with the same teacher for most of the day. The following cooperative structures and activities are written for two instructional settings at the elementary level. The first is made up of EO, FEP, and LEP students. The LEP students are from a variety of language backgrounds. The language of instruction used in the mini-lesson is English, with appropriate modifications in methods and materials so that the LEP students can participate fully. The second set of structures and activities is for a setting in which EO and FEP students are also placed

with LEP students, but in this setting, the LEP students are from one language group. In this mini-lesson, both English and Spanish are used for instruction.

The structures and activities illustrate how LEP, FEP, and EO students can work together productively in order to learn language and social studies. In the multiple language group setting, LEP students are taught in English in mixed groups (for example, LEP, FEP, and EO) that are heterogeneous in terms of English language proficiency. In the setting where LEP students are all from the same language group, LEP students are placed in all-LEP groups that are heterogeneous according to primary language proficiency. They receive instruction in their primary language, while EO and FEP students receive instruction in English.

Cooperative Structures and Activities for the Elementary Level

The following structures and activities are intended to show teachers how to use cooperative strategies in a variety of ways, from a short, five-minute activity in a teacher-directed lesson to a series of cooperative activities that might fill an entire instructional period. Although designed to be done in sequence, teachers may choose to use one or more of them during an instructional period. Once familiar and comfortable with these short-term uses of cooperative learning, the teacher may want to try more extended implementation of the type illustrated in the model units.

Readers interested in elementary-level instruction should also refer to the secondary-level structures and activities (Chapter 7) and the secondary-level model units (Chapter 10-11). They offer insights into using cooperative learning at any grade level.

California's adopted curriculum frameworks were used in the development of both the mini-lessons and the model units. In the structures and activities for social studies, content was drawn from the *History–Social Science Framework* (1988b). The *English–Language Arts Framework* (1987) was used in the development of the structures and activities for language arts. Both frameworks emphasize the use of literature; therefore, the structures and activities integrate the study of literature into the curriculum.

Cooperative Structures and Activities for History–Social Science[1]

Instructional Setting

Students: LEP (multiple languages), FEP, EO

Grade Level: 2

Delivery Mode: English

Group Size: Four students per group, heterogeneous grouping by English language proficiency

Content Area: Social Science

Lesson Objective: To understand and appreciate the many ways that parents, grandparents, and ancestors have made a difference in the child's life. (See California Department of Education, 1988b, p. 39, "People Who Make a Difference.")

Activities

1. BRAINSTORMING

For Brainstorming to be effective, it is important to follow these rules: (1) set a time limit to motivate rapid contributions; (2) do not evaluate team members' responses (all ideas help); and (3) build on the ideas of others.

a. Students meet in teams of four. Teacher assigns role of recorder.

b. Each team tries to come up with as many words as possible that come to mind when they think of grandparents or older relatives. The recorder writes students' responses on large sheets of butcher paper.

c. Teacher collects sheets from each team and puts them on the wall, then leads class discussion on the meaning of the words.

2. THREE-STEP INTERVIEW

a. Students meet in teams of four and number off: #1, #2, #3, #4.

b. Team members interview each other in pairs. Pairs use the following steps:

1) #2 interviews #1 while #4 interviews #3.

2) Students reverse roles. #1 interviews #2 while #3 interviews #4.

3) Team members share. #1 shares with the team what he or she learned in the interview, followed by #2, #3, #4 in turn.

Students may generate their own questions to ask each other about their grandparents, or the teacher may provide the groups with questions (on a chart or handout) such as the following:

1) Do you have a grandfather or grandmother?
2) Where do they live?
3) Do you visit them often?
4) How do you help your grandparents?
5) How do your grandparents help you?

3. COOPERATIVE PROJECT

a. Students in teams of four look through magazines to find three pictures of things that remind them of something their grandparents or older relatives have done for them (e.g., picture of an elephant makes one student think of his grandparents, who took him to the zoo; picture of a bicycle makes another student think of her uncle, who taught her to ride). Students cut out selected pictures.

b. Teams divide into two pairs. Partners describe their pictures to each other using the following process:
   1) #2 describes to #1 while #4 describes to #3.
   2) Students reverse roles. #1 describes to #2 while #3 describes to #4.
   3) Students change partners. #2 describes to #4 while #1 describes to #3.
   4) Students reverse roles. #4 describes to #2 while #3 describes to #1.

c. Each team makes a collage by pasting team members' pictures on a large sheet of butcher paper.

d. Each team shares its collage with a nearby team. Each team member participates by describing his or her pictures. (The number of team presentations will depend on available time.)

e. Teams post collages on bulletin board.

4. ROUNDROBIN

a. Students in teams of four think of ways in which they can help grandparents or older relatives.

b. Starting with student #1, team members take turns in clockwise fashion, contributing one idea each.

c. Team members review and summarize their team's ideas.

d. Each member finds a partner on a nearby team (e.g., student #1 on one team pairs with #1 on another team). Partners share their team's ideas.

e. Teacher reads book, *Now One Foot, Now the Other,* by Tomie de Paola (1981), to the whole class and facilitates class discussion of key ideas in the story. (Story summary: When his grandfather suffers a stroke, Bobby teaches him to walk, just as his grandfather had once taught him.)

5. CO-OP CO-OP

a. Teacher reads *Now One Foot, Now the Other* (de Paola, 1981) to the whole class then asks comprehension questions that focus on story elements: characters, setting, problem, and resolution. (For more on story elements, see Chapter 8.)

b. Teacher gives each team four small sheets of paper.

c. Each team member selects one of the four story elements and describes it to team members.

d. Each student then illustrates his or her story element on a sheet of paper and then shares illustration with team members.

e. Teams post illustrations on bulletin board. Teacher recognizes each team's contribution to the assignment.

6. INSIDE-OUTSIDE CIRCLE

a. Teacher asks the whole class to form two concentric circles with students inside facing out and those outside facing in.

b. Each circle rotates to the right, stopping at the third person. The two students facing each other are partners.

c. Partners exchange one thing that they like to do with their grandparents or older relative.

d. The circles rotate again to the right, to the third person. Pairs share again. This continues until circles return to their original position.

Cooperative Structures and Activities for Language Arts

Instructional Setting

Students: LEP (all Spanish-speaking), FEP, EO

Grade Level: 4

Delivery Mode: English and Spanish

Group Size: Four students per group. Two kinds of groups are formed, English language and Spanish language. English language groups include EO and FEP students; LEP students are placed in the Spanish language groups. Instruction to the Spanish language groups is provided in Spanish; English is used with the English groups.

Content Area: Language Arts

Lesson Objective: Aural/oral skill development in native language; aural skill development in second language.

Activities

1. SIMULTANEOUS NUMBERED HEADS TOGETHER

The following activities are done with both the Spanish language and English language groups. If a team teacher or instructional assistant is available, these group activities may be done simultaneously; if not, they can be done with one group while the other group is working on a different activity. The activities use *The Three Billy Goats Gruff*. (See text and accompanying pictures at end of this chapter.)

a. Teacher tells or reads *The Three Billy Goats Gruff* (in Spanish or English, as appropriate) and asks comprehension questions.

b. Each team receives an envelope containing a set of 12 individual pictures that represent the story.

c. Students number themselves #1 to #4 in their groups and place the set of 12 story pictures in front of them in view of all members.

d. Teacher reads a line from the story (e.g., "He tossed him over the bridge and into the rushing water!"). The following process is used to ensure individual accountability and collaboration among team members:

   1) Individual students look for the picture corresponding to the line read without signaling in any way to team members.
   2) Team leader asks if each team member has spotted the correct picture.
   3) Team members assist any individual who needs help.

4) Team members take turns paraphrasing the line from the story represented by the picture.

e. Teacher calls out a number (e.g., #1), and #1s from each team select the appropriate picture and hold it up. (As an alternative, all #1s place their pictures on one line of a pocket chart in the front of the room.)

f. Teacher continues the activity until all pictures are used.

g. After English and Spanish groups complete their activities, the teacher asks each team member in the groups to take three story pictures that are in sequence. Team members practice retelling the story to the team in English or Spanish, as appropriate, according to the story pictures they are holding. Later, teams will be called on to present the story to the whole class.

h. Teams are asked at random to present the story in English or Spanish to the whole class. As an alternative to increase participation, two different teams—LEP and FEP/EO—may be asked to pair up to present their stories to each other.

2. COOPERATIVE PROJECT

a. Teacher asks students to form their groups and gives each group an envelope containing 12 individually cut story pictures (Same pictures can be used from Numbered Heads Together, above).

b. Each team member takes three pictures at random and colors them.

c. Each team is asked to sequence the story pictures. Team members re-tell the story by having each member describe his or her three pictures.

d. Students paste their pictures on a manila folder as a team illustration of the story. Individual students then tell the entire story to their team. Team members help if necessary.

3. CORNERS

a. Teacher designates four corners or locations in the classroom to represent the characters of the story: small goat, medium goat, big goat, and troll. Students are in a whole-class group.

b. Students, without consulting others, think of the four characters and identify one that reminds them of themselves: that is, one that has characteristics in common with them. (Each student should write the name of the character chosen on a piece of paper. This will prevent some students from changing their minds and joining friends in a corner.)

c. Students take their places in the corner that represents their choice.

d. Students form a pair with another student in their corner; each explains why he or she chose that character. After hearing their explanation, partners paraphrase the reason(s) to show that they understand.

e. Next, students find a new partner and relay why their former partner chose this character. Again, partners paraphrase the reasons to show they understand.

Acknowledgments

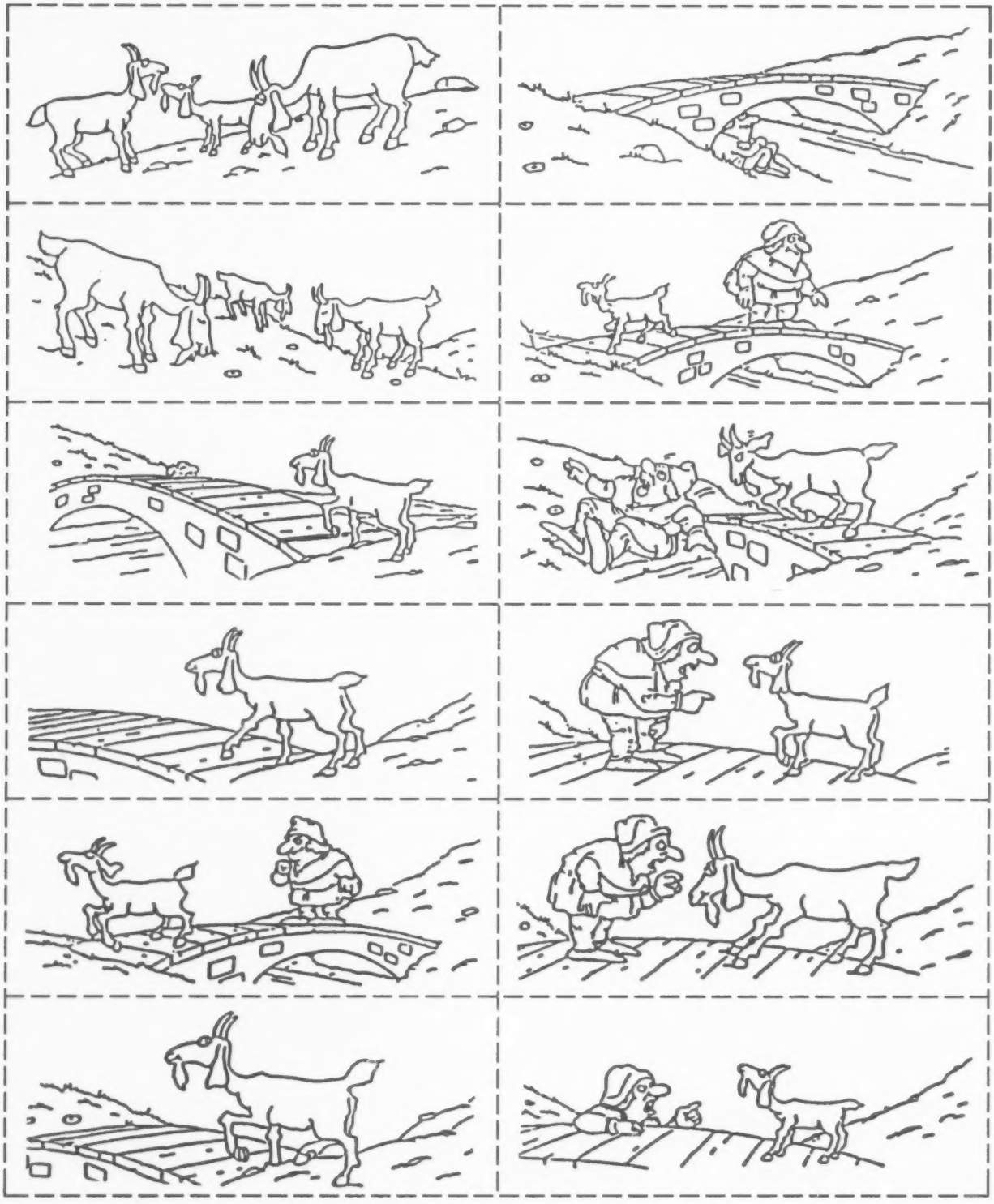
I wish to thank Lilia Stapleton, Administrator, Special Programs, ABC Unified School District, for her encouragement and support of my participation in the development of this volume. Also, many thanks to my secretary, Diana Flores, who spent many hours typing my drafts.

Note

[1]In order to keep the mini-lessons brief, extensive suggestions for ensuring effective participation of LEP students are not provided. Readers should consult Chapter 4 and the model units for specific strategies for assisting LEP students.

Sample Storyboard

THE THREE BILLY GOATS GRUFF



Lou Madrid, La Mirada, California

THE THREE BILLY GOATS GRUFF*

Once upon a time there were three Billy Goats named Gruff who lived together on a mountainside. Now on their mountainside there was very little to eat, but just across the way was a beautiful pasture of green grass. On the way to this pasture they had to pass over a bridge, and under the bridge lived a big bad troll.

One day trip-trap, the youngest Billy Goat Gruff started across the bridge. "Who trips over my bridge?" roared the troll. "Only Littlest Billy Goat Gruff," said the little goat in a soft voice. "Aha! I am going to come up and eat you," said the troll. "Oh, don't eat me," cried the Littlest Gruff. "My bigger brother is coming after me, and he is much bigger than I." So the troll grumbled and rumbled but he let the Littlest Billy Goat Gruff cross the bridge to the pasture.

Soon Trip-Trap, Trip-Trap, the second Billy Goat Gruff started across the bridge. "Who trips over my bridge?" roared the troll. "Only Middle-Sized Billy Goat Gruff," said the second goat. "Aha! I am going to come up and eat you," said the troll. "Oh, don't eat me," cried the Middle-Sized Gruff. "My bigger brother is coming after me, and he is much bigger than I." So the troll grumbled and rumbled, but he let the Middle-Sized Billy Goat Gruff cross the bridge to the pasture.

Soon TRIP-TRAP, TRIP-TRAP, the biggest Billy Goat Gruff started across the bridge. "Who tramps over my bridge?" roared the troll. IT IS I, GREAT BIG BILLY GOAT GRUFF," shouted the biggest goat. "Aha! I am going to come up and eat you," said the troll. "COME ALONG," cried Great Big Billy Goat Gruff. So up came the old troll. But the Great Big Billy Goat Gruff put down his head and bounded forward and hurled that troll right off the bridge and he was never seen again.

Then the Great Big Billy Goat Gruff joined his brothers in the pasture. And the grass was so delicious that all three goats grew so fat that they could hardly walk home.

And snip, snap, snout, my story's out.

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*Adaptation of a version published in Schaffer (no date).

6

Using Cooperative Learning at the Secondary Level

Barbara Chips
Garden Grove Unified School District

According to the 1990 Language Census (California Department of Education, 1990b), there are more than 260,398 limited-English-proficient (LEP) students in grades 7 through 12 in California's public schools. These students present unique challenges to teachers, administrators, and district personnel who seek to develop appropriate programs for this diverse population. No single instructional strategy nor program model can meet all of the language, academic, and psychosocial needs of these adolescents. District personnel must identify the needs of their students and implement a variety of programs and strategies to meet these needs. Cooperative learning is one important option to consider in promoting excellence among LEP students at the secondary level.

This chapter will address the special needs of secondary (grades 7 through 12) LEP students and discuss the use of cooperative learning in improving their English language development, academic achievement, and psychosocial development. The various instructional settings at the secondary level will then be described followed by mini-lessons for using cooperative learning to teach language and content. Model units for the secondary level can be found in Chapters 10 and 11. The content for both the mini-lessons and model units are language arts and history–social science, based on California's *English–Language Arts Framework* (1987) and *History–Social Science Framework* (1988b).

The Secondary LEP Student and English Language Development

Secondary LEP students, especially recent immigrants, face major difficulties in acquiring English. They arrive in the United States at 11 to 18 years of age with different levels of literacy, education, and language proficiency. Cooperative learning is one strategy that can assist teachers in dealing with the diversity of students' backgrounds. The following is a description of some of the differences among LEP students and between LEP students and their native-English-speaking peers.

Secondary LEP students have fewer years than elementary students to acquire the English language required for success in academic subjects. The

demands of the curriculum and the short time available for learning English put secondary LEP students significantly behind their native-English-speaking peers in academic achievement (Collier, 1987).

Despite these obstacles, research tells us that secondary students do have some advantages in acquiring English. Cummins (1981) states that, "older learners who are more cognitively mature and whose L1 [native language] proficiency is better developed would acquire cognitively demanding aspects of L2 [second language] proficiency more rapidly than younger learners. The only area where research suggests older learners may not have an advantage is pronunciation, which, significantly, appears to be one of the least cognitively demanding aspects of both L1 and L2 proficiency" (p. 29).

Many secondary students arrive better able to comprehend and speak English than read and write it. Others may be able to understand the written word but have little or no ability to comprehend oral English. The following experience illustrates this point:

> *A Vietnamese student named Thuy arrived in a classroom and quickly showed comprehension of written English by responding to assignments that had been given in writing on the chalkboard. During an oral interview of 20 survival questions, she responded correctly to only two. She had learned to read English in Vietnam, but due to very little experience interacting with native speakers of English, she had a very low level of aural comprehension. Her needs were very different from those of a child with oral language skills but with no reading or writing skills.*

Finally, many secondary students enter school with varying amounts of education in their own country. Some arrive with no prior education. Others arrive with a level of education equal or superior to that of native English speakers. Research shows that students with strong academic and linguistic skills in one language will generally acquire a second language more quickly (Cummins, 1981).

Why do we need cooperative learning in secondary schools? In order to approach the language proficiency level of their peers, secondary LEP students need the maximum amount of time possible hearing and using language in a low-risk environment. Cooperative learning provides the structure for this to happen. Teachers should consider the question, "What is the best use of my students' time?" With approximately 30 students in a classroom who can interact and negotiate meaning, a teacher needs to take advantage of this environment for language acquisition. Reading and answering questions can be done at home, providing more time in the classroom for interactive, cooperative structures in which students are learning from each other.

In cooperative teams, students with lower levels of proficiency can interact with students at higher levels in order to negotiate the meaning of content. Preliterate students can begin to build a strong foundation in oral proficiency

prior to literacy development. All students can receive maximum practice of language and interpersonal skills necessary for higher education or for the job market.

The Secondary LEP Student and Academic Performance

Academic tasks faced by secondary LEP students are demanding. To graduate, they must complete 210 to 230 credits. They must pass proficiency tests in English. They take a variety of standardized tests; in California, these include the California Test of Basic Skills (CTBS), the California Aptitude Test (CAT), and the California Assessment Program (CAP). All of these tasks require a thorough knowledge of English. Unfortunately, many lack the English language skills required to do well on these tests.

The daily schedule of secondary LEP students also presents a major challenge. Students have five to seven classes a day, many of which may be taught entirely in English. Trying to make sense of content taught in a language other than one's own is exhausting for just a few minutes, let alone for five or six hours of instruction.

In addition, subjects such as physical science, chemistry, world cultures, economics, algebra, and geometry require high levels of academic language. Most secondary level programs do not provide LEP students with access to these courses in their primary language, so they must obtain this subject matter through specialized, content-based English instruction (sometimes referred to as "sheltered English") or in mainstream settings. Added to these demands is the high reading level of most secondary texts and materials.

LEP students who hope to go directly into a college or university upon graduation from high school face even more significant problems. These students must take classes designated for college credit, many of which may be beyond their language ability. They may be able to handle the content in their primary language, but not in English. Educators need to respond to these problems by using the best instructional strategies, such as cooperative learning, to provide all students access to academic subjects required for graduation.

Preliterate students have an exceedingly difficult time achieving success in the usual high school curriculum. Their problems multiply greatly in content courses that rely on academic language proficiency in English. Meeting graduation requirements during the normal high school time frame is a nearly impossible task for the preliterate student.

Cooperative learning cannot solve all of the problems discussed above. It does, however, offer teachers ways to respond to students who represent a wide range of abilities. It provides a structure for providing content support for students from many different language backgrounds. It gives students opportunities to learn from one another rather than receiving instruction from the teacher alone. Appropriate cooperative tasks stimulate students to higher lev-

els of thinking, preparing them for academic learning and testing. For other approaches to educating LEP students, see the California Department of Education's *Bilingual Education Handbook* (1990a).

The Secondary LEP Student and Social Development

The social development needs of LEP students entering the secondary school are different from those of elementary children. By middle school and high school, students' peer groups are well defined. LEP adolescents find it exceedingly difficult to be accepted into these well established groups. Research shows that students frequently choose friends within their own ethnic group. Furthermore, friends are often selected within ethnic groups based on length of residency in the United States. For example, Latinos who were born in the United States often form peer groups that do not include recent arrivals from Mexico. These friendship patterns often result in conflict within and between ethnic groups at the secondary level. (See Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi, 1986.) LEP students encounter further problems when dealing with the new culture and peer expectations. Pressures among adolescents related to drugs, sex, and gang violence present LEP students with special difficulties. These issues may push children into further isolation from the mainstream of the school.

Another adjustment for many secondary LEP students is that of handling academic requirements at school while being responsible for a job or family obligations and demands. These commitments give students little time to complete school-related tasks. Older immigrant children have often endured years of trauma in their lives. Some have fought in wars or have seen family members injured or killed. Others are frequently in conflict with parents who speak little or no English. Since children usually learn English and social skills faster than their parents, they often become the intermediary between their parents and society, a very difficult role to play. In this situation, especially in the absence of open communication between parent and child, parents are vulnerable to exploitation by their children. For example, a child might give false reasons for his suspension from school.

In response to these social development needs, cooperative learning offers the secondary student numerous benefits. Cooperative structures give LEP students the chance to develop positive, productive relationships with majority and minority students. Through cooperative learning, students serve as teachers of other students or as experts on a certain topic.

Cooperative teams may offer some students the academic support that will help them find success. Recent statistics show that the middle school is the beginning of a high dropout rate (Minicucci, 1985; Olsen & Chen, 1988). The lack of stimulating classes, the lack of interested, caring adults, and peer pressure are reasons given by many students for dropping out of school. Cooperative learning may lead to peer friendships and support, thereby preventing

students from dropping out, motivating them to succeed academically and socially.

Instructional Settings at the Secondary Level

Language Arts

Most LEP students in secondary schools work on their English language development in an English as a second language (ESL) classroom. They may spend one to two periods a day in an ESL class. In some schools, students may be placed in an ESL class according to their English language proficiency (beginning, intermediate, advanced, or perhaps a transitional class). The model unit for ESL in Chapter 10 is written for an intermediate-level class.

If numbers do not permit such levels, all LEP students might be combined in a mixed-level classroom. In such a setting, it is difficult for teachers to provide instruction that is appropriate for each students' level of proficiency; however, through cooperative learning, students can be given more opportunities for meaningful language use. The cooperative structures and activities and model units contain cooperative activities that are helpful for improving instruction where there is a high degree of diversity of student needs.

In the least advisable situation, LEP students—regardless of English language proficiency—may be placed in mainstream English classes. It is very difficult in a literature class, for example, for the teacher to teach Chaucer or Shakespeare to native English speakers while also helping recently arrived LEP students to learn the names of objects in a classroom. Whenever possible, LEP students placed in mainstream English classes should have at least intermediate fluency in English. The cooperative structures and activities and model units in this volume are designed to help LEP students develop the language and academic skills they will need to participate effectively in mainstream settings.

A final instructional setting for language arts is a primary language development class, such as Spanish for native speakers. Because of the strong correlation between first language and second language development (see Cummins, 1981), a language arts class in the primary language represents an excellent offering for LEP students. Cooperative learning structures in this class would be implemented just as they would in a regular English class, but the primary language would be used instead of English.

History–Social Science

LEP students receive their social science instruction, whether it is world cultures, U.S. history, economics, government, or geography, in a variety of instructional settings. Three of the most common are discussed in this chapter. First is the dual language class where two languages are used to deliver instruction, Spanish and English. Typically, this class is organized for LEP stu-

dents, all of whom have Spanish as their native language; Spanish-speaking FEP students may also participate. Instruction is given mostly in Spanish, with some supplemental explanation in English.

A second setting is content-based second language instruction for LEP students, preferably for those with at least intermediate skills in English. Specialized instructional strategies are used to improve the students' English language skills, as well as their understanding of content, in this case, history–social science. Sometimes referred to as "sheltered" instruction, this approach uses a variety of instructional strategies, such as cooperative learning, to make the content comprehensible to all students. Teachers modify their use of English and select materials based on the students' language proficiency. Frequent checks for understanding are made, and the use of manipulatives, graphs, charts, and visuals are essential. Lessons are designed to maximize interaction among students and with the teacher to promote more understanding. For more on content-based second language instruction, see California Department of Education (1990a) and Mohan (1986).

A third setting is the mainstream social science classroom with native English speakers, FEP students, and LEP students with intermediate to high levels of English proficiency. This setting creates an opportunity for frequent use of heterogeneous teams, based on English language proficiency, which provide a supportive learning environment for all students, especially those with limited English proficiency. The teacher should be cognizant of the LEP students' needs and design lessons appropriately. In this setting, balanced use of homogeneous (for example, all LEP students) and heterogeneous (for example, LEP, FEP, and EO) groups is an effective way to meet the LEP students' language, academic, and social needs. The model unit for History–Social Science in Chapter 10 is written for this setting.

A mainstream English setting for history–social science that enrolls native English speakers along with LEP students of all proficiency levels, beginning to advanced, is not a desirable arrangement. The content of most social science courses is so demanding that it is very difficult for a teacher to provide appropriate instruction for both native English speakers and students with very limited English proficiency. In this setting, neither cooperative learning nor other innovative strategies can ensure comprehension of difficult content in English.

COOPERATIVE STRUCTURES AND ACTIVITIES FOR THE SECONDARY LEVEL

Cooperative learning strategies may be used in a variety of ways; for example, a five-minute team builder to introduce a lesson, a short activity to evaluate the students' understanding, a series of brief cooperative activities to teach content, or a full unit of instruction based on cooperative structures.

The following cooperative structures and activities show how a teacher can use one activity or a series of activities to make content understandable and interesting for LEP students. These activities are not interdependent; teachers may choose one or more of them to try in class. Once familiar with them, the teacher may want to use several activities together or try a full unit of structures and activities like those illustrated in Chapters 10 and 11. Readers interested in secondary-level instruction should also refer to the elementary structures and activities (Chapter 5) and the elementary-level model units (Chapters 7-9). Although written for the elementary level, they offer insights into using cooperative learning at any level.

Cooperative Structures and Activities for English Language Development

The following cooperative structures and activities were designed for teaching English language skills to LEP students. However, they could be easily modified for a variety of content areas. They are also useful for helping students learn to work together in a cooperative group. They may be adapted for LEP students at the beginning, intermediate, or advanced levels. They may be used alone within a traditional classroom or in conjunction with other cooperative learning activities.

Instructional Setting

Students: LEP (multiple languages), beginning, intermediate, or advanced

Grade Level: 7-12

Delivery Mode: English

Group Size: Four students per group, heterogeneous by English language proficiency

Content Area: English Language Development

Lesson Objective: Students will use oral language to complete tasks. They will develop social skills for teamwork as they improve comprehension and oral production skills.

Activities

1. PERSONALIZED NAME TAGS/INTERVIEW

a. Each student receives a blank name tag to be completed as directed by the teacher.

b. Students have five minutes to fill in their name tags with the information listed below. (Teacher can choose information appropriate to the class or the lesson.)

NAME TAG

three hobbies or interests; career goal
first name, last name
three favorite foods; two favorite classes

c. Student #1 uses name tag to introduce him or herself to student #2 while student #3 does the same to student #4. The procedure is reversed, #2 to #1 and #4 to #3. One minute is allowed for each introduction, which should be timed carefully.

d. Student #1 introduces student #2 to the whole team using that student's name tag. Student #2 introduces #1 to the whole team, #3 introduces #4, and #4 introduces #3. Again, one minute is provided for each introduction.

2. COMMONALITIES

a. Teacher assigns roles to each team member: writer, reporter, facilitator, and time keeper.

b. Team members have five minutes to discuss things that they all have in common, other than the obvious, such as eyes and ears. They should consider family members, pets, interests, travels, and so forth.

c. Teams discuss their commonalities and choose the five most interesting ones. The writer lists the team's five commonalities on a sheet of paper.

d. Teams share the things they have in common with other teams or with the whole class.

e. Commonalities are posted on bulletin boards with team names so that others may read them later.

3. PICTURE DIFFERENCES

a. Students form two pairs within the team. One of four members is assigned the role of writer.

b. One pair receives a picture very similar to a picture held by the other pair. There are, however, 5 to 20 differences between the pictures.

c. Each pair discusses its picture without letting the other pair see it.

d. Pairs talk to each other to find differences between their pictures. Pairs may not look at each other's picture. Writer notes down each difference.

e. Teams can compare lists or share with the whole class.

Pictures are available commercially (see, e.g., Olsen, 1984). Teachers can make their own by making two copies of any picture and whiting out 5 to 20 items from one picture.

4. CROSSWORD PARTNERS

a. Students form pairs within their team of four.

b. One pair gets a crossword puzzle with down words filled in and the other gets the same one with across words filled in. Partners review words in their puzzle and make sure they understand them.

c. Pairs give clues, never the actual word, to the other pair to help them fill in missing words. Students fill in the words as they are identified.

This is designed as an enrichment activity for reinforcing vocabulary. Teachers may use commercially produced puzzles or make their own based on vocabulary already studied.

5. DRAW A PICTURE

a. Students form pairs within their teams.

b. One pair gets a simple picture of anything and the other pair gets a blank sheet of paper.

c. Pair with the picture must describe what they see while the other pair draws what it hears. Pair with the picture can neither watch nor correct drawing.

d. When drawing is complete, the two pairs compare the real picture with the drawing, discussing similarities and differences.

e. Pictures may be posted on the bulletin board.

6. PROBLEM SOLVING

a. Students on teams brainstorm activities they could do on a Saturday night. This may also be done as word-clustering or word-webbing (see Figure 4, Chapter 2).

b. Each team compares its list of activities with other nearby teams or with the entire class.

c. Teacher announces that each team has $100 to spend on a Saturday night. Team members must decide what they will do together within the $100 limit. Team members discuss their ideas, and the writer lists planned activities and the cost of each.

d. Reporter on each team shares the decisions of its team with the rest of the class. This may be done simultaneously by having the reporters list expenditures on the chalkboard.

e. Team activities can be posted on bulletin boards.

Any type of problem-solving activity can be used. Other examples include deciding how to spend $25 to buy food to make a special dinner for the team, creating a list of the five occupations that would be most necessary to start a new world on a new planet, or creating a list of the five most important characteristics of a good friend.

7. PARTNERS

a. Students form two pairs within their team of four.

b. Each pair in the team receives a different short story. (Stories may be taken from ESL texts or rewritten from mainstream textbooks. They should have fewer than 250 words and be of high interest.)

c. Each pair reads its story and quietly discusses the content. Teacher may have pairs take notes on content.

d. Teacher collects stories after approximately five minutes.

e. First one pair tells its story to the other pair, then the second pair tells its story to the first pair.

f. Each pair then tells the other's story in order to check for full comprehension of both stories.

g. Teacher gives a quiz that students take individually. The quiz can be multiple choice, short answer, true/false, or essay, depending on the English proficiency level of the students and the instructional objective. Each student receives a grade for the story. If all team members get 80% or more correct on the test, each team member gets bonus points.

Combining Various Structures and Activities for English Language Development

The purpose of the following is to show how a variety of cooperative structures and activities can be used together to facilitate LEP students' English language development. Each collaborative activity focuses on a different language skill, such as listening, speaking, reading, or writing, using an Aesop's fable as the literature selection. The activities below follow a sequence, but the reader may select one or more of them, depending on the ability of the students and the instructional objectives.

This fable could be used in Aesop's original form or it could be rewritten in simpler form for students with less English proficiency. (See sample versions at the end of the lesson.) The following is an expansion of a lesson originally written by Daniel D. Holt, the editor of this volume.

Instructional Setting

Students: LEP (multiple languages), intermediate or advanced

Grade Level: 7-12

Delivery Mode: English

Group Size: Four students per group, heterogeneous by English language proficiency

Content: English Language Development

Lesson Objective: Students will comprehend the meaning and message of the fable and develop their English listening, speaking, reading and writing skills.

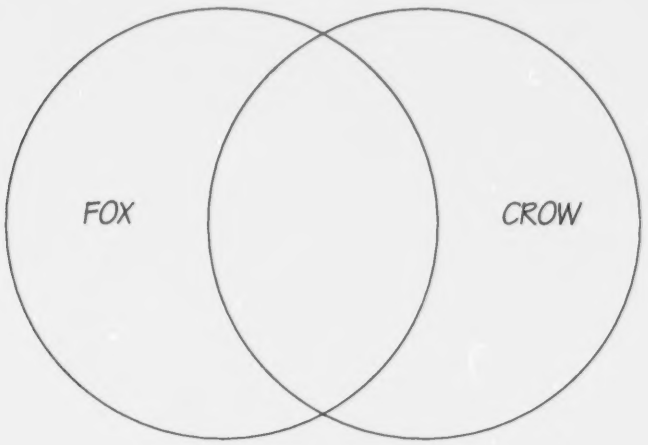
Activities

1. BRAINSTORMING

a. Tasks are assigned for each member on a team of four (writer, reporter, facilitator, and time keeper).

b. Each team receives a Venn diagram with "fox" labeled on one side and "crow" on the other.

c. Team has five minutes to identify at least five things that foxes have or do that crows do not, five things that crows have or do that foxes do not, and five things that crows and foxes have in common. (Common elements are written in the middle space of the Venn diagram; unique elements for the fox are written in the left space, and unique characteristics of the crow are written in the right space.) Each student contributes responses as the writer fills in the Venn diagram.



d. Two teams work together, with reporters from both teams sharing their diagrams. Team members can add new items as they go or delete incorrect items.

e. Diagrams with team names can be placed on bulletin boards.

Before doing the following activities, the teacher should read the fable, "The Fox and the Crow" (Editorial Board of the University Society, 1955), to the class, using a variety of visuals to make the content understandable. The teacher may read it twice. Students listen; they may take notes (words, phrases, sentences) to help them recall details later.

2. GROUP DISCUSSION

a. Teams generate questions to ask other teams about the fable. Roles are assigned as above. Writer records questions.

b. Each team selects its best question and one team member to share it.

c. Team representatives share their team's best question with the whole class.

d. This structure can be followed by Cooperative Review, Numbered Heads Together, or Send-a-Problem.

3. COOPERATIVE REVIEW

a. A student from one team (e.g., Team 1) asks a question from its list and calls on another team (e.g., Team 3) to answer.

b. Team 3 discusses the answer briefly, making sure all members agree, and then team reporter gives the answer. Team 1 judges whether the answer is correct. If incorrect, or if another team wants to add to answer, Team 1 calls on another team.

c. Team number 3 asks a question and the review continues.

Teacher may want to add a competitive dimension among teams by giving points. For example, if the question is correct, Team 1 gets one point. If the answer is correct, Team 3 gets a point. If the answer is incorrect, the original team calls on another team to answer. The asking team gets a point also.

4. NUMBERED HEADS TOGETHER

a. Students in each team number off, #1, #2, #3, #4. (If a team has five members, two students can have the same number and work together.)

b. Teacher poses a question about the fable. Questions for this structure should be high-consensus, short-answer. (Questions may be generated by the teacher or borrowed from the teams' question pool generated above.)

c. Teacher gives each team time to discuss their answer. Teacher may structure discussion by creating steps such as the following: (1) all team members close their eyes and think of the answer; (2) they open their eyes, put their "heads together," and share their answers with team members; (3) team members agree on the best answer; (4) teams make sure that all members know the answer.

d. Teacher calls a number at random (e.g., #3) to answer the question. (A spinning wheel or cube may be used to select the number.) The first #3 to raise his or her hand is called on to answer.

When calling on a number, participation can be increased by having all #2s work together. For example, #2s from each team might come to the chalkboard and write the answer simultaneously, or each team might have a slate on which #2 would write the answer and then hold it up.

5. SEND-A-PROBLEM

a. Each student on each team writes a question on one side of a piece of paper and the answer on the other side. (Questions should be recall-level and short-answer, true-false, or multiple choice.)

b. One student on each team collects the four pieces of paper and passes them to another team.

c. Students form pairs within each team. Each pair takes two questions. Student #1 asks #2 two questions; Student #3 asks #4 the other two questions. Student #2 then asks #1; #4 asks #3. Two pairs then exchange questions and repeat process.

d. After working with all four questions, teams exchange four questions with another team. This process continues until all teams have studied all questions.

6. SEQUENCING THE STORY

a. Teams are given individually cut pictures that represent the story. (See sample pictures of "The Fox and the Crow" at end of this chapter.)

b. Each student takes one of the pictures and makes a one- or two-sentence verbal description of it based on the story heard previously.

c. Each student tells his or her picture description to other team members. Team members seat themselves in order of story sequence. After agreeing on the sequence, team members retell the story in proper order.

d. As preparation for reading sentences in the Strip Story activity below, the teacher distributes to each team a packet of four one-sentence strips, each strip describing one picture. Students match each sentence with pictures.

7. STRIP STORY

a. Teacher prepares packets of four one-sentence strips, each strip describing one of the pictures of the story. Make one packet of strips for each team.

b. Teacher assigns role of facilitator on each team and distributes one packet of strips to each team.

c. Each student on the team randomly takes a strip and spends two or three minutes memorizing the strip or at least its main idea. Team members make sure each student can read his or her strip and recite it correctly.

d. Team members return strips to their team facilitator.

e. Students on the team seat themselves in order of story sequence. They practice retelling the story in proper sequence.

f. Each team may perform its story for another team or for the whole class. Teams may dramatize their performance with actions, extended dialogues, and other special effects.

8. GROUP DISCUSSION

a. Roles are assigned to team members. Teams use Brainstorming to generate possible morals of the story.

b. Teams reach consensus on their favorite moral.

c. Recorder on each team writes the moral on a piece of paper and passes it to other teams. Recorders may also simultaneously write their teams' moral on the chalkboard.

d. Teacher leads class discussion on each of the morals, noting similarities, differences, underlying meaning, and so forth.

THE FOX AND THE CROW

One day a Crow who had found a piece of cheese was flying toward the top of a tall tree where she hoped to enjoy her prize alone. Along came a Fox who smelled the delicious cheese and determined to have it for himself. "If I plan this right, I shall have cheese for supper," he thought.

So he went to the foot of the tree and began to speak in his politest tones. "Good day, Mistress Crow," he said, "How well you are looking today!"

The Crow was very much pleased, but of course could not reply because of the cheese she held in her beak.

"How glossy your wings are, and how smooth your feathers," the Fox went on. "Indeed, you are the loveliest of birds."

The Crow was even more pleased by this and believed every word of it. Still she said nothing, but she swelled with inward pride and flapped her wings to show her pleasure.

Then the Fox said: "I have heard that you have, besides, a wonderful voice. I should like so much to hear you sing, for if your voice matched the beauty of your plumage, then you would indeed be the most wonderful of feathered creatures. Won't you sing just a few notes for me that I may greet you as Queen of Song?"

These words flattered the vain Crow. She had often been told that her voice was rusty, but here was someone who appreciated her. She lifted up her head and began to caw her best. The moment she opened her beak, down dropped the piece of cheese!

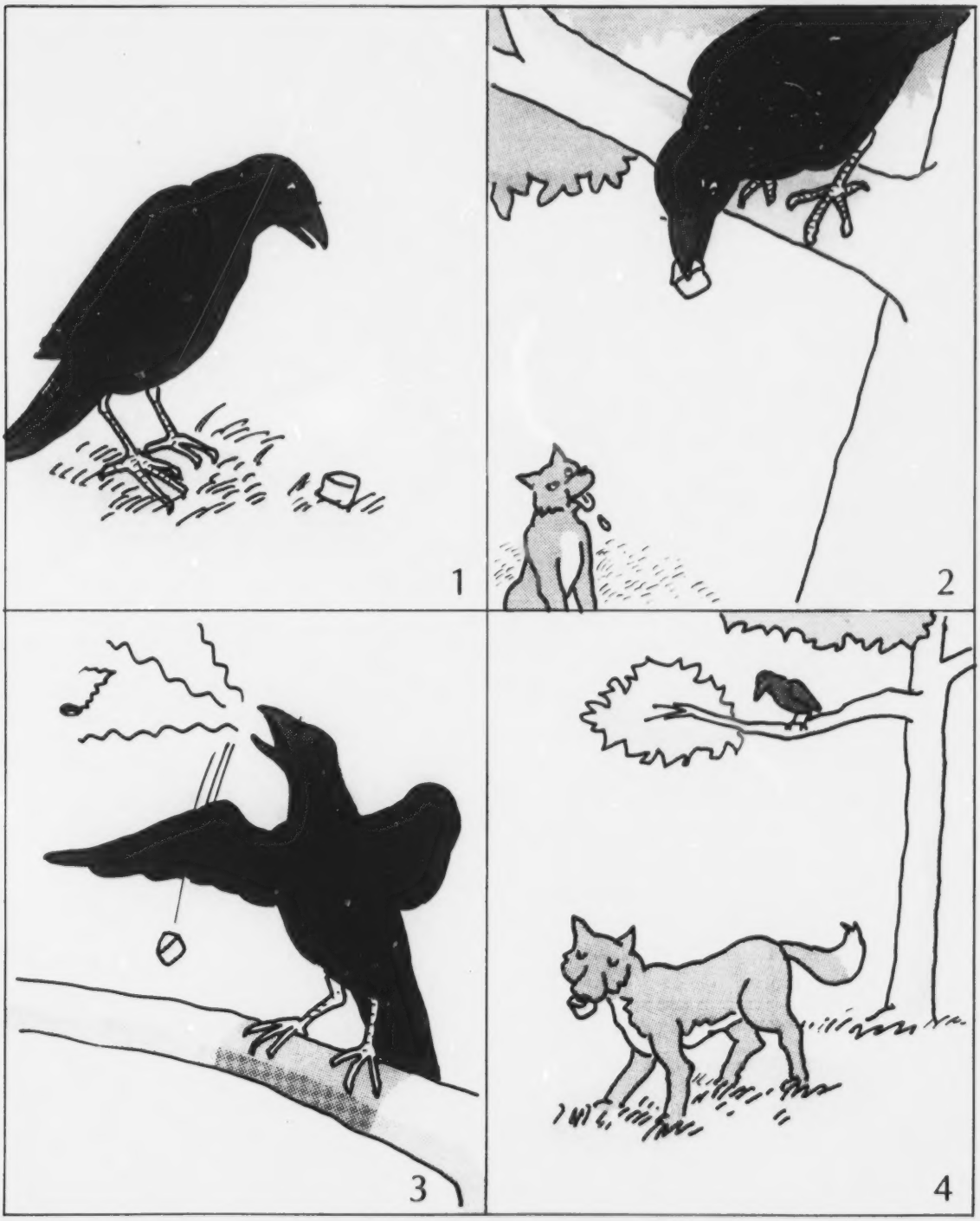
Quick as a flash the wily Fox snatched it up before it touched the ground. "Thank you, that was all I wanted," said he as he gobbled up the cheese.

As he walked away licking his chops, the Fox offered these words of advice to the saddened Crow: "In the future perhaps you won't be so ready to believe all the good things you hear about yourself." With an insolent flick of his tail the clever Fox sauntered off into the forest.

Do not trust flatterers!

Sample Storyboard

THE FOX AND THE CROW



Paul Lee, Senior Graphic Artist, California Department of Education

The following is a simplified version of the Aesop's fable.

THE FOX AND THE CROW

Once upon a time there was a crow who found a large piece of tasty cheese. He quickly put it in his mouth and flew up into a tree. A hungry fox walked under the tree and suddenly saw the crow and the cheese. She carefully planned what to say. "O Crow," she said, "You are a really fine bird! What beautiful feathers and eyes you have! It is too bad that you cannot sing."

The crow was very happy to hear such nice things about himself. He was even happier that he could show the fox that he could also sing beautifully. But as he opened his mouth to sing, the cheese dropped to the ground in front of the fox. The fox quickly ate the cheese with great enjoyment.

MORAL: He who listens to flattery forgets everything else.

Introduction to the Model Units

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The purpose of the model units is to show how to use cooperative learning methods during a number of instructional periods. In order to develop a deep understanding of language and other content areas, students need to participate in a variety of activities over time that give them opportunities to work with concepts in numerous ways. The model units show how language arts and history/social science concepts can be presented and recycled in cooperative activities in order to facilitate the students' academic, language, and prosocial growth.

The demands of cooperative learning are quite different from those of competitive or individualistic learning. Students are responsible not only for their own learning but also for the learning of their team members. They must learn not only subject matter; they must learn how to work with other students in the group. Students need time to adjust to these demands. As a result, many of the expected gains from working in groups may not become evident until after the students have had continued, consistent experience in cooperative learning.

By organizing a series of lessons based on cooperative activities, teachers can give students the time they need to master the skills associated with group work. Furthermore, there is strong evidence that sustained participation in cooperative groups ensures that the prosocial outcomes associated with cooperative learning, such as cooperative behavior and improved cross-racial attitudes, stay with the student over the long-term. Finally, by using cooperative learning consistently over time, teachers will deepen their own understanding of cooperative structures and improve their ability to adapt their lessons to meet the needs of their students.

The following is an outline of the model units in Chapters 7, 8, and 10. A modified format is used in Chapters 9 and 11.

Overview
- Background Information
- Rationale for Lesson Organization
- Considerations for Meeting the Needs of LEP Students
- Monitoring and Evaluation

Time Line

Instructional Setting

Lesson Design

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus
Input
Application
Evaluation
Closure

There are five model units, three for the elementary and two for the secondary level. The writers designed the units to meet the needs of students and teachers at their particular level. However, readers are encouraged to review all of the units to obtain ideas that they can use for creating cooperative activities for their students.

The overview of each unit contains important background information to help readers understand the rationale and organization of the lesson. It also includes a summary of how the writers responded to the needs of LEP students in the unit. The time line provides a quick overview of the sequence of concept development in the unit.

Chapters 7, 8, and 10 contain a number of lessons that are given on different days of instruction. For example, the unit in Chapter 7 contains four lessons conducted over four days of instruction. The units, however, can be adapted to meet individual teachers' needs. For example, some teachers may want to give two of the lessons on the same day; others may give one lesson, take a one-day break, then give the next lesson. Chapters 9 and 11 are divided into three phases rather than lessons, since they are written for a large number of instructional periods.

The instructional setting is provided at the beginning of each unit and stays the same for each lesson. It describes basic information about the students and how instruction is provided: for example, grade level, classroom composition (LEP, FEP, and EO), language of instruction, and size of the cooperative groups. A lesson design is given for each instructional period. It contains key information for planning the lesson: for example, objectives, key concepts, materials, and total time for the lesson.

Each lesson includes an instructional plan consisting of five parts: (1) introduction and lesson focus, (2) input, (3) application, (4) evaluation, and (5) closure. The purpose of the lesson and the initial, introductory activities are described in the introduction and lesson focus. The input activities are those in which the teacher provides instruction of the lesson's key concepts. In the application phase, students practice, extend, and otherwise apply the concepts. The evaluation phase includes suggestions for determining how well some of the lesson objectives were met. Finally, the closure contains activities that recap the lesson, along with some word about the next lesson in the unit.

Each instructional plan contains all of the essential components and a variety of cooperative activities for teaching the lessons. Space does not permit

including many activities that might otherwise enhance the unit. It is the writers' intention to provide the reader with the most important activities and suggestions for ensuring the success of LEP, FEP, and EO students in language arts and social studies through collaborative structures. Teachers will want to add, delete, and modify these activities to fit their own situation. It is in the hands of creative, dedicated teachers that these units will come to life.

Development of the Model Units

The model units were written by teachers and resource specialists experienced in the use of cooperative learning with LEP students and knowledgeable about recent trends in curriculum and instruction. Consistent with the philosophy of cooperative learning, they were written in a collaborative fashion. After the writers completed their initial drafts, the manuscripts were edited by Daniel Holt and Sue Heredia-Arriaga and returned to the authors for further refinement. Drafts were then sent to each of the other unit writers for review.

Acknowledgments

The writers of these model units exhibited the highest degree of professionalism by enthusiastically and energetically contributing to this volume. They spent many hours creating and revising their units, as well as helping other writers improve theirs. Their commitment to the collaborative nature of this project ensured that the final, edited versions of the model units contained challenging content and effective instructional strategies.

I am deeply grateful to Sue Heredia-Arriaga for working with me to edit these units. She spent countless hours carefully reviewing and offering suggestions on each of the manuscripts. Her extensive experience in cooperative learning and knowledge of curriculum in general strengthened the units and the volume as a whole. I also appreciate the many excellent suggestions that Spencer Kagan made for improving the quality of the cooperative activities in these units.

Finally, I wish to thank Grace D. Holt, Educational Consultant, Sacramento, whose insightful comments and constant encouragement were indispensable to the editing of these units.

7

Model Unit for K-1 Language Arts/Social Studies

Carole Cooper
Global Learning Communities

Angie Gilligan
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This unit integrates the study of language arts and social studies for students at the kindergarten and first grade levels. Designed for a classroom of students from diverse language backgrounds—LEP (Spanish-speaking), FEP, and EO—these lessons utilize English as the principal medium of instruction, with preview activities in Spanish for the LEP students. These activities require that the teacher or instructional assistant speak Spanish. Cooperative pair activities are used to improve language and concept acquisition, as well as to facilitate the interaction among the LEP, FEP, and EO students.

In the early primary class, three kinds of cooperation are especially effective: spontaneous, whole-class, and paired. Spontaneous cooperation occurs naturally throughout the day in play and work situations. By labeling and reinforcing spontaneous cooperation, the teacher can encourage continued use of these behaviors in a variety of activities.

Whole-class cooperation includes activities that create a cooperative classroom environment. For example, the students might work on individual or paired tasks, with the teacher coordinating the parts into a whole group product and working to help the students see the relationship of individual effort to the whole-class product. These activities are designed to promote caring, shared-ownership, and shared responsibility. Whole-class cooperative activities should occur on an ongoing basis and constitute a large percentage of cooperative activities at the K-1 level.

In cooperative pair activities, students can practice and apply specific collaborative and academic skills in a focused way not possible in spontaneous or whole-class cooperative experiences. The student interaction patterns may be structured by the teacher, or the task may involve student choices in how to interact. Groups larger than pairs are rarely used in kindergarten classes and should only be used for very open-ended tasks.

When planning paired activities, teachers need to assess the developmental appropriateness of the task and gradually sequence more and more interdependent activities. At this age level, teachers should avoid forcing cooperation

on students who are not ready for it. For example, when using pattern blocks, a pair may first work side by side, each copying its own design, yet each taking blocks from a common tub of materials. Students can next choose a pattern for the other person to copy, still using the common tub of materials. Next, the pairs can check each other's work. Finally, they can together make the pattern from one pattern block card. It should also be noted that in the beginning, in order to avoid conflicts, many resources rather than limited resources may be best for the K-1 grade levels.

In addition to slowly introducing more interdependence in K-1 lessons, teachers need to gradually introduce cooperative learning into their classrooms. It may be helpful to give students the choice to use cooperative activities during activity time or at a station, while other students are doing more independent work at other stations. In the beginning, the process is new to both the teacher and the students; therefore, the teacher's facilitation and monitoring of partner work is necessary, starting with a small group of children rather than the whole class. Getting started with collaborative activities in cooking, art, music, games, puzzles, or playhouse activities may also ease the implementation of cooperative learning within the classroom. Other considerations for adapting cooperative learning to K-1 classrooms include the following:

- Encouraging self-responsibility by having a ground rule that a student needs to ask someone else in the classroom for help before going to the teacher or aide. The teacher may never have to tie a shoelace again!
- Encouraging a focus on social skill development by focusing on one social skill for the whole day. At any time during the day, the teacher could ask students to state when they saw someone else in the classroom use that skill.
- Encouraging reflection on one's own behavior by debriefing or processing lessons in a quick fashion, such as responding to a teacher's question by thumbs up or thumbs down, or answering the teacher's question as each child's "ticket-out-the-door" or in circle-time discussion.

Cooperative learning in the form of whole-class cooperative activities, paired activities, and spontaneous cooperation is integral to the K-1 mission of socializing students to a community of people beyond their own families and to the provision of key learning experiences that stimulate students' thinking, reasoning, and problem-solving skills. Cooperative learning helps students develop the skills identified for this level by California's *History–Social Science Framework* (California Department of Education, 1988b):

> [Students] must learn to share, to take turns, to respect the rights of others, and to take care of themselves and their own possessions. These are the learnings that are necessary for good civic behavior in the classroom and in the larger society. (p. 32)

Students at the K-1 level need to learn to work in structured, paired activities gradually. Teachers will want to use Team Building, Class Building, and other supportive activities to help students adjust to collaborative work. This unit is designed for students who have been working in groups for at least one semester.

Rationale for Lesson Organization

The family is a common social studies theme in both kindergarten and first grade. As young students move from an awareness of self to an awareness of the world around them, they must progress through a study of the family. This unit is designed to lead students toward the concept of the class as a family, which, in turn, should help them develop an awareness of community.

The integration of language arts and social studies occurs naturally through the use of literature in the form of the book, *Whose Mouse are You?/¿De quién eres, ratoncito?* This colorfully illustrated book, about a mouse and his family, helps students understand family characteristics and changes within a family, providing a springboard for language arts/social studies activities. Other literature selections reflecting the same themes could also be used. See *English–Language Arts Framework* (California Department of Education, 1987) for further examples of literature-based and integrated curricula.

This unit is conducted in the students' primary language (i.e., Spanish) and English, using literature in both languages. Spanish is used for preview activities in which the LEP students are given key language and social studies concepts before applying them in English with the other students in the class. This instructional process could be used with LEP students from any language group.

The use of contemporary stories, legends, and folktales helps students to "discover the many ways in which people, families, and cultural groups are alike as well as those ways in which they are different" (California Department of Education, 1988b, p. 36). Appropriate selections of such literature may be made from the publication, *Annotated Recommended Readings in Literature* (California Department of Education, 1988a).

This unit has been designed to cover four days of instruction; however, teachers may decide to change the instructional schedule to meet their individual needs.

Considerations for Meeting the Needs of LEP Students

The lessons in this unit use both homogeneous (i.e., all LEP) groups, as well as heterogeneous (i.e., LEP-FEP-EO) groups. Heterogeneous versus more homogeneous grouping depends on the goals of the lesson or the overall program (i.e., concept versus English language development) and the students' language abilities in relation to the complexity of the lesson.

Heterogeneous groups are one of the essential elements of cooperative learning. However, the ultimate purpose of grouping is to help each child meet the academic, language, and social objectives of the lesson. Structuring groups for heterogeneity should not take precedence over structuring the lesson for student success.

Both English and Spanish are used for instruction in the following lessons. Spanish is used for introducing key concepts to LEP students in groups that are homogeneous (i.e., all-LEP) by English language proficiency. Students then apply these concepts in English in two-member partner groups that are heterogeneous by English language proficiency (e.g., LEP-FEP). Decisions regarding the use of Spanish and English are based on the principle that the two languages should not be mixed by the teacher during instruction.

The language objectives for this unit are to have all children—LEP, FEP, and EO—develop aural/oral proficiency in English. The LEP students' Spanish skills will be sharpened as they learn about the family in their native language before applying family-related concepts in English.

If these lessons were implemented in a program with Spanish-as-a-second-language goals for the non-Spanish speakers, the same lesson format could be used, with appropriate switches in language. For example, if Spanish is used as the language for applying the concepts in heterogeneous partner groups, then the non-Spanish speakers may need an introduction to the concepts in English in homogeneous (i.e., all-EO) groups.

In order to implement the format used in this unit, the classroom teacher needs to be bilingual in Spanish and English, or be assisted by a Spanish-speaking team teacher or instructional assistant.

Monitoring and Evaluation

Throughout the unit, enriching the students' English and Spanish language skills is a primary objective. Activities have also been designed to ensure increased understanding of the concept of family and students' self-esteem, as well as social skills appropriate for group activities. In order to evaluate these objectives, this unit uses teacher observation and group processing by the students.

Time Line

Day 1—Story Sequence: Remembering a story sequence.

Day 2—Comprehension: Connecting illustrations and sentences.

Day 3—Similarities and Differences: Sharing ways that families are the same and different.

Day 4—Illustration and Comparison: Illustrating and comparing families; building a "class family."

Instructional Setting

Students: LEP (Spanish-speaking), FEP, and EO

Grade Level: K-1

Delivery Mode: Spanish and English

Group Size: Whole class on Day 1, pairs on Days 2–4. Pairs are heterogeneous by English language proficiency and academic ability. Recently arrived students and those with very limited English proficiency may be paired with more experienced students who speak Spanish or with an instructional assistant.

DAY 1

Lesson Design

Content Area: Language Arts/Social Studies

Lesson Topic: Families

Objectives

Academic: Listen to and remember a story.

Language: Develop aural/oral language skills in English.

Social: Listen to others.
Treat classmates with kindness.

Total Time: 30 minutes

Teacher Materials: Chart paper; teacher-illustrated pictures of key words from the story; copy of *Whose Mouse Are You?* and *¿De quién eres, ratoncito?* (Kraus, 1970) (translation copyright, 1980).

Student Materials: None

Key Concepts: Remembering a story sequence.

Key Vocabulary

family	familia
mother	mama
father	papa
sister	hermana
brother	hermano/hermanito
in order	en orden
first	primero
next	proximo
last	ultimo

Cooperative Structures: Group Discussion, Group Processing

Instructional Plan

Preview for LEP Students

Before participating in the following activities, Spanish-speaking LEP students are grouped homogeneously and provided a preview of the lesson in Spanish. The teacher reads *¿De quién eres, ratoncito?* and discusses the key ideas in the story with the students. If necessary, the teacher also goes over key English vocabulary from the story.

In programs with Spanish-as-a-second-language objectives for the EO and FEP students, the preview would be done in English for those students, followed by the lesson conducted in Spanish.

Introduction and Lesson Focus (5 min.)

The focus of this lesson is for students to learn how to listen to a story and retell it with the help of others. All students are seated around the teacher. The lesson is conducted in English.

Teacher

- Shows the storybook *Whose Mouse Are You?* and explains that the lesson will be about this story. Students are told that as they learn about the story they will also learn about helping each other.

Input (5 min.)

Teacher

- Briefly explains the tasks and objectives of the lesson, adding that there are some key words that students will need to know.
- Introduces key vocabulary, using the teacher-illustrated pictures, the storybook, or other media.

Application (10 min.)

Teacher

- Reads aloud *Whose Mouse Are You?* Re-reads the story and encourages students to comment and ask questions.
- Reminds students of the social objectives of listening and treating classmates with kindness. Calls attention to positive listening and kindness behaviors used by students.
- Moves randomly from student to student asking individuals to retell the story in sequence. It may be helpful for teacher to ask students to put their heads together with the person sitting next to them to come up with the next event in sequence.

- As students retell the story, the teacher records their responses in English on chart paper. Chart story can be saved for future lessons and for student reference.

Evaluation (5 min.)

Teacher

- Reads the retold story from the chart paper. Uses group discussion to evaluate the completeness of the retold story.

  Sample questions asked by the teacher:
  1. What happened first?
  2. What happened next?
  3. What happened last?

- Tells students to rely on their memory as they think of the answers. Relates their answers to the sentences on the chart paper.

- Uses Group Processing to evaluate social skill objectives.

  Sample questions:
  1. Please share one way that we listened to each other today.
  2. Please tell one way that we treated each other with kindness.

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Makes positive comments about the progress the students have made in learning to retell stories and in practicing good social skills in class.

- Refers to future lessons (e.g., reading/retelling stories in English and pair interviews) that will be related to today's lesson.

DAY 2

Lesson Design

Content Area: Language Arts/Social Studies

Lesson Topic: Families

Objectives

Academic: Draw pictures to match the words on a page.
Remember what happened in a story.
Follow directions.

Language: Develop aural/oral language skills in Spanish.
Use language associated with social skills.

Social: Share ideas.
Share materials.
Listen to others.

Total Time: 30 minutes

Teacher Materials: Copies of *Whose Mouse Are You?* and *¿De quién eres, ratoncito?* Teacher-made books in English, comprised of sentences that students generated the previous day or text taken directly from the book (one sentence each on 11 x 14-inch sheet of paper). If numbers of students warrant it, books may also be created from the text of the Spanish version of the story.

Student Materials: Felt pens or colored crayons (one set per pair of students)

Key Concept: Relationship between text and illustrations of text.

Key Vocabulary

drawing	dibujo
illustration	ilustración

Cooperative Structures: Paired Activities, Team Building, Group Processing

Instructional Plan

Preview for LEP Students

Before participating in the following activities, Spanish-speaking LEP students are grouped homogeneously and provided a preview of the lesson in Spanish. Review the story and explain partner activity for this lesson. If necessary, go over key English vocabulary.

Introduction and Lesson Focus (5 min.)

Lesson is introduced in English to the whole class with students seated randomly.

Teacher

- Explains that what the teacher recorded in Day 1 has been rewritten on 11 x 14-inch pages to create a book in English. Today's task is to illustrate the pages in paired activities. If there are not enough pages for every pair, the teacher may assign some pairs the front and back covers of the book to design.
- Depending on the students' experience with paired activities, teacher may have to do more or less Team Building before continuing with these activities.

Input (5 min.)

The following input is given in English to the whole class.

Teacher

- Points to pages from *Whose Mouse Are You?* and asks individual students to describe what they see in the illustrations. Explains that illustrations are drawings in books or stories.
- Explains that the teacher has made books of the stories that the students retold on Day 1, one sentence per page. Indicates that these pages have no illustrations and that the task today is for each pair of students to draw illustrations for one of the sentences.
- Emphasizes that the illustrations should be the work of two people. Partners will first need to discuss what they want to draw and then decide how each partner will contribute to the illustration.
- Explains the social objectives of the lesson and asks students to give examples (verbal and non-verbal) of sharing and positive listening behaviors.

Application (10 min.)

Teacher

- Tells students to find their assigned partners. Some classrooms may have one or two LEP students from another language group, such as Cambodian or Mandarin. The teacher may assign each of these students to a partner who is FEP or EO and who is responsible for helping them.
- Asks each pair to come to the teacher to receive a page to illustrate. As each pair receives its page the teacher restates the task and makes sure that both students know the meaning of the sentence on the page. Each student should help the other remember the meaning. Teacher explains that each pair will draw its illustration on the page.

Students

- Discuss in pairs how they will make their illustration.

Teacher

- Observes and monitors evidence of sharing, of positive listening, and of each student's contribution. Calls the class's attention to positive academic, language, and social behaviors.

Students

- As pairs complete their illustrations, they write their names on the back of the pages and bring them to the teacher.

Teacher

- Discusses with each pair the content of the text and the illustration they have drawn. Commends good work. If some have incomplete illustrations, asks them to add to their drawing.
- While the pairs wait for others to finish, teacher asks them to think about ways that their partner helped them or about ideas their partner gave them for drawing the picture.

Evaluation (5 min.)

The evaluation and closure activities are done with the whole class, with questions addressed to individual students. Some of the questions for these activities may be linguistically demanding for LEP students; others may not be. For those that are difficult, the teacher may want to ask them in Spanish and encourage the students to respond in Spanish. Easier questions may be asked and responded to in English.

Teacher

- Uses Group Processing to discuss the academic and social objectives of the lesson with the whole class.

  Sample questions:

  1. How did you know what to draw?
  2. How did you decide who would draw the different parts of the illustration?
  3. Share how your partner helped you or an idea your partner gave you.

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Shows illustrated books to the entire class to reinforce the positive contributions of each pair. States that the students will be using these illustrated pages again in future lessons. Explains that the books will be stored in the library for students to read at their leisure.

DAY 3

Lesson Design

Lesson Topic: Families

Objectives

Academic: Tell about your family.
Share ways our families are the same.
Share ways our families are different.

Language: Develop aural/oral language.

Social: Take turns.
Ask questions.

Total Time: 40 minutes

Teacher Materials: Copies of the book, English and Spanish versions

Student Materials: Recording paper; pencils; felt pens

Key Concepts: Characteristics of families and the way families are the same and different.

Key Vocabulary

family	familia
brother	hermano
sister	hermana
alike	igual
different	diferente
question	pregunta

Cooperative Structures: Paired Activities; Three-Step Interview; Group Processing

Instructional Plan

Preview for LEP Students

Before participating in the following activities, Spanish-speaking LEP students are grouped homogeneously and provided a preview of the lesson in Spanish. Review the concept of family and members of the family. Preview the question(s) that will be used for the Three-Step Interview activity below. If necessary, go over key English vocabulary.

Introduction and Lesson Focus (5 min.)

The purpose of this lesson is to introduce students to Three-Step Interview by using a limited number of questions. This lesson will also prepare the students for dealing with a more extended understanding of family in Day 4.

Teacher

- Asks students to form the same heterogeneous pairs that they were in for Day 2. (If necessary, non-English-speaking students work in Spanish with Spanish-speaking partner.)
- Tells students that today they are going to interview their partner about their family.

Input (10 min.)

Teacher

- Explains that when people want to know something about someone else they ask questions.
- Selects one question from the following that partners will ask each other. During future lessons, as students continue to interview each other, they can ask progressively more difficult questions.

  a) How many brothers do you have?
  b) How many sisters do you have?
  c) How many people are in your family?
  d) How many people live in your house?
  e) Who is in your family?
  f) What is special about your family?
  g) What do your mother and father do?
  h) What is your favorite thing to do with your family?

- Models the Three-Step Interview procedure that partners will use in asking the question.

  1. A interviews B.
  2. B interviews A.
  3. A and B draw illustrations (e.g., pictures, numbers, symbols) of their own responses. (As an alternative, A draws B's response; B draws A's response.)

Application (10 min.)

Students

- Partners decide who begins the interview (or teacher says, "Partner with longer hair").
- Teacher observes partner work and takes notes for closure activity.
- As pairs finish, they bring their work to the teacher for review.

Evaluation (10 min.)

Teacher

- Asks the students to seat themselves in rows, based on how they answered the question. For example, if the question, "How many sisters do you have?" was used, students would sit in Row #1 if they have one sister, Row #2 for two sisters, Row #3 for three sisters, Row #4 for no sisters.
- For Group Processing, teacher asks students individually the following questions:

  1. In what ways was the interview hard for you?
  2. In what ways was the interview easy for you?

Teacher may decide on the use of Spanish or English as suggested in the Evaluation activity for Day 2.

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Gives partners positive reinforcement based on observations during the interview activities.

DAY 4

Lesson Design

Lesson Topic: Families

Objectives

Academic: Follow directions for controlled drawing.
Describe your family.
Identify how families are the same or different.

Language: Develop aural/oral language.

Social: Share materials.
Ask for help when needed.
Give help when asked.

Total Time: 35 minutes

Teacher Materials: Sample construction paper chain

Student Materials: Strips of construction paper (one per student); felt pens (one set per pair); glue or stapler

Key Concepts: Family members; identifying similarities and differences in families

Key Vocabulary

same	igual
different	diferente
family members	miembros de una familia

Cooperative Structures: Paired Activities; Class Building; Group Processing

Instructional Plan

Preview for LEP Students

Before participating in the following activities, Spanish-speaking LEP students are grouped homogeneously and provided a preview of the lesson in Spanish. Review the concept of family and preview partner activity for this lesson. If necessary, go over key English vocabulary.

Introduction and Lesson Focus (5 min.)

Students are in the same partner groups as in Day 3.

Teacher

- Explains that students will describe their families to their partners and then draw a picture of their family on a strip of construction paper.

Input (10 min.)

Teacher

- Teacher and instructional assistant or student model the procedure that pairs will use:
  a) A describes family to B (e.g., number of family members).
  b) B describes family to A.
  c) Each partner draws picture of own family on strip of paper.
  d) A describes illustration to B.
  e) B describes illustration to A.
  f) A and B identify similarities and differences between their families.
  g) Partners link strips together with glue or staples.
- Teacher identifies the social objectives of the lesson and models the language needed for them (e.g., "Would you please help me?"; "Thank you for your help.").

Application (10 min.)

Teacher

- Asks students to form their pair groups and begin working.

Students

- Partners describe families and draw illustrations following procedure above.

Teacher

- Observes the pairs. Records examples of social, academic, and language skills of asking for and receiving help to use during closure activity.
- Reminds students of the social objectives of the lesson by calling attention to positive behaviors observed: for example, "Would you please help me?" or "Thank you for your help."
- Reminds students to draw their illustrations between the dotted lines on the strips so they can be seen when they are linked together.
- As a Culminating Class Building activity, teacher asks all students to form a circle and connect all of the strips of construction paper into one class chain.
- Points out that the class is one family, linked by the class chain. The class chain may be hung in the classroom or library, or on the hall bulletin board.

Evaluation (5 min.)

Teacher may make decisions regarding use of Spanish and English for evaluation and closure as suggested in Day 2.

Teacher

- Uses Group Processing to process the social objectives of the lesson, asking questions such as the following:
  1. How did you share materials?
  2. How did you help someone? When?
  3. How did you receive help from someone? When?

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Reinforces positive social, academic, and language skills that were observed and recorded.
- Points out that the class chain of families shows how the class is one family.

8

Model Unit for Grades 2-3 Language Arts

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This unit is designed for a second or third grade class consisting of LEP students of multiple language backgrounds, FEP students, and EO students. It is intended for a class with several months' experience in cooperative learning. The unit focuses on aural/oral language development in English for students who have reached at least the speech emergence stage (i.e., late beginning). Students are free to respond in their native language; however, they are encouraged to participate in English.

In the event that the class includes non-English-speaking students or students with very limited English, special consideration should be given to pairing these students with someone of their own language background at a higher English language proficiency level or with someone who is of a different language background but is willing and able to assist them.

Rationale for Lesson Organization

This unit focuses on the integration of academic, language, and social skills in language arts. It is designed to show how very young students can learn the structural elements of a story. The particular emphasis for each lesson is identified along with the amount of time needed to complete each part of the lesson.

Students have had prior experience with the social skills in the lessons. The teacher may select additional skills that are appropriate for lesson activities.

Considerations for Meeting Needs of LEP Students

In selecting literature for this unit, special consideration should be given to the length and complexity of a story. A short, simple story appropriate for this level would be *Rosie's Walk* by Pat Hutchinson. Somewhat more difficult is *The Three Billy Goats Gruff*. An even more challenging selection would be *Ira Sleeps Over* by Bernard Waber. If teachers are using a dual language approach for instruction, stories should be chosen that have versions available in both languages. Because the students are asked to predict the ending to the story, it is important for the teacher to select a story that is unfamiliar to the students.

Although the teacher needs to monitor the participation of all students, special attention should be given to LEP students. This is necessary in order to evaluate their ability to contribute to and benefit from the activities. For example, on Day 1 it is suggested that the students be clustered in their groups near the teacher while the story is being read. This enables the students to focus on the story and allows the teacher to closely monitor student attention. Students who are less proficient in English may also be paired or twinned with more proficient students. In order to further ensure their comprehension, LEP students may be placed in homogeneous groups (i.e., all LEP students) so that the teacher can provide instruction especially adapted to their needs.

Monitoring and Evaluation

There should be ongoing monitoring and evaluation by the teacher. During the activities, the teacher should evaluate student input, assist in the clarification of the tasks, and specify expected outcomes.

Time Line

Day 1—Prediction: Making predictions about a story and its final outcome.

Day 2—Prediction: Formalizing each group's prediction about the final outcome of the story.

Day 3—Story Mapping: Focusing on the story's structural elements.

Day 4—Story Frame: Focusing on the story's sequence.

Instructional Setting

Students: LEP (multiple languages), FEP, EO

Grade Levels: Grades 2-3

Delivery Mode: English

Group Size: Four students per group; heterogeneous groups based on English language proficiency

DAY 1

Lesson Design

Content Area: Language Arts

Lesson Topic: Prediction

Objectives

Academic: Predict what a story will be about.
Predict the ending of a story.
Follow directions.

Language: Develop aural/oral language.

Social: Listen to others.
Take turns.
Praise group members.

Total Time: 35 minutes

Teacher Materials: Any book or a story from a basal reader, but one whose ending is not already known by the students; illustrated and labeled vocabulary cards; pocket chart

Key Concepts: Prediction of what a story will be about and its final outcome.

Key Vocabulary: Based on story selected; illustrated on vocabulary cards.

Cooperative Structures: Three-Step Interview, Roundrobin, Group Processing.

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus

The focus of this lesson is to show students that they have personal knowledge to bring to the story, thus making literature more pleasurable. Students are seated in their teams near the teacher so they can see the cover of the book held by the teacher.

Input/Application (25 min.)

Teacher

- Reviews social skills that are the focus for this unit. (They should be placed on a chart for easy reference.) Tells students that they will use these skills during the upcoming four lessons. Explains that at the end of each lesson, students will give examples of how they used the skills; the teacher will also give feedback on skills observed during the lesson.

This unit identifies three social skills. The teacher may choose a "skill of the day" or a "skill of the week" in order to add focus to the behavior and language associated with the skill.

- Teacher displays book cover or a picture from the book and asks students to form pairs on their teams and use the following Three-Step Interview procedure to share their ideas on what they think the book is about.
  a) A interviews B while C interviews D.
  b) Students reverse roles: B interviews A while D interviews C.
  c) Roundrobin: A shares with the team what he or she learned in the interview, followed by B, C, and D in turn.

- Teacher may choose to use a Team Building activity to introduce this lesson. For example, students may use Roundrobin to generate words they think of when the teacher displays book cover.

Students

- Use interview procedure to share their predictions.

Teacher

- Calls on teams at random to elicit ideas on what the book is about.
- Introduces and discusses illustrated vocabulary cards placed in a pocket chart to assist students' understanding of the story.
- Reads the story aloud, but stops at a natural point mid-way through the story.
- Asks teams to use Three-Step Interview to answer the following questions:
  a) What did you originally think the book was about?
  b) How was your original idea different from what the book was actually about?

Students

- Use interview process to discuss the topic of the story.

Teacher

- As a homework assignment, asks students to predict possible endings to the story. They may be written or illustrated. Students should be prepared to share their predictions the following day within their teams.
- As a follow-up activity to insure comprehension, the story may be reread and discussed with LEP students in homogeneous groups. Story can be reread by a teacher, an instructional assistant, a cross-age tutor, or a parent volunteer.

Evaluation (5 min.)

Teacher

- For a Group Processing activity, asks students to form pairs in their teams to ask the following questions. Partners respond to each other.
  1. When did you listen?
  2. When did you take turns?
  3. When did you praise others?

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Verbally recognizes positive use of social skills giving specific feedback from observations of team activities.
- Tells students that tomorrow they will have an opportunity to hear the complete story.

DAY 2

Lesson Design

Lesson Topic: Prediction

Objectives

Academic: Formulate a possible outcome for a story.
Follow directions.

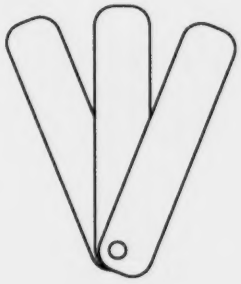
Language: Develop aural/oral language skills.

Social: Listen to others.
Take turns.
Praise group members.

Total Time: 45 minutes

Teacher Materials: Pocket chart; illustrated and labeled pocket cards; book

Student Materials: 1/2 sheet of paper; one pencil; one letter-sized envelope; Talking Chip marker; one handmade fan of green, yellow, and red construction paper (one per student)



Key Concept: Predicting an ending to a story.

Key Vocabulary: Review vocabulary from Day 1.

Cooperative Structures: Talking Chip, Group Processing.

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus

The purpose of this activity is to check the students' understanding of the story thus far. Students are in the same teams as Day 1.

Input/Application (35 min.)

Teacher

- Reminds students of the social skills highlighted on the chart in the front of the room.
- Shows cover of book and pages from first part of story focusing on key vocabulary and concepts.
- Tells students to use Talking Chip structure in order to review the first part of the story.

Students

- Participate in team discussions.

Teacher

- Asks each student to take turns on the team describing their predictions for the ending of the story (i.e., their assigned homework from Day 1). Uses Talking Chip structure to facilitate participation of all team members. Observes team discussions and notes examples for feedback on social skills later.

Students

- Participate in team discussions.

Teacher

- Instructs teams to decide upon one possible ending for the story. Students can use one of the member's predictions or formulate a new prediction.
- Next, asks students to write their team prediction on paper and turn it in to the teacher, using the following procedure:

  Student #1: Writes the group's prediction.
  Student #2: Places the prediction in the envelope and seals it.
  Student #3: Labels the envelope with team identifier (name, number, etc.).
  Student #4: Holds the envelope for the next activity.

Students

- Prepare written prediction.

Teacher

- Reads the remainder of the story. Tells all #4s to pass their team envelope to a neighboring team.

Students

- Open the envelope and read the prediction; compare the prediction with their own. They pass the envelope on to another team; the procedure is repeated until students have reviewed all predictions.

Teacher

- As a final activity, recaps the whole story, emphasizing the sequence of events. As a preview for Day 3, gives the students the following labels for the parts of the story that they have been discussing: setting, character, problem, resolution.
- After the complete story has been read, multiple copies of the book should be made available to students to read in their free time.

Evaluation (5 min.)

Teacher

- For Group Processing, asks students the three questions below. Students demonstrate their response by using a three-colored fan. (Green means yes, red means no, and yellow means somewhat or questionable.) An alternative way for the students to respond would be to use hand signals (e.g., thumbs up means yes, thumbs down means no, and thumbs sideways means somewhat or questionable).
- Following the fan signal to each question, teacher asks students to turn to a partner on their team and give one example of how they listened, took turns, and praised.

1. Did I listen?
2. Did I take turns?
3. Did I praise others?

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Praises each team for its contribution. Gives feedback from earlier observations.

DAY 3

Lesson Design

Lesson Topic: Story mapping

Objectives

Academic: Identify the setting, characters, problem, and resolution of a story.
Follow directions.

Language: Develop aural/oral and written language by labeling, illustrating, and discussing a story's structural elements.

Social: Listen to others.
Take turns.
Praise group members.

Total Time: 45 minutes.

Teacher Materials: Book; illustrated vocabulary cards; pocket chart; large-sized story grid with labels

Student Materials (one per student): 1/4 sheet of 8-1/2" x 11" illustrated vocabulary drawing paper; pencil; crayons/colored markers (one set per group); 8-1/2" x 11" tag or construction paper to be used as the grid; individual processing sheets; glue or stapler

STORY GRID

Setting	**Characters**
Problem	**Resolution**

Key Concepts: Comprehension, story sequence, recognition of story's structural elements

Key Vocabulary: Characters, setting, problem, resolution; other vocabulary dependent upon story. Review vocabulary from Day 1.

Cooperative Structures: Modified Jigsaw; Simultaneous Numbered Heads Together; Group Processing

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus

The purpose of this lesson is to facilitate the students' comprehension of the story by identifying structural elements. Students are in the same teams as Day 2.

Input/Application (35 min.)

Teacher

- Refers to three social skills on the chart and urges students to practice them during the lesson.
- Reviews the terms for the structural elements discussed at the end of Day 2: setting, characters, problem, resolution.
- After students are numbered 1-4 in the team, assigns a structural element to each student (e.g., #1—setting, #2—characters, #3—problem, #4—resolution.) Observes group work and notes examples for feedback later.
- Explains that students will form "expert groups" according to their numbers; that is, all #1s in one expert group, all #2s in a second expert group, and so forth. After identifying and illustrating the structural element of the story in the expert groups, they will present their work to their home teammates.
- Teacher may want to limit the size of expert groups to four to maximize student participation. In order to provide additional assistance to LEP students, the teacher may assign them to homogeneous expert groups according to English language proficiency or primary language. LEP students may also be assigned a fellow team member ("Jigsaw Twin"), with the two going to the same expert group.

Students

- Meet in expert groups to identify, illustrate, and label their structural elements. Discuss what in the story represents the element and what should be drawn in the picture. Each student then draws a picture to be taken back to their home team. Students refer to large-sized story grid in front of the room if they need assistance in labeling their element.
- After completing their illustration, students in the expert group form pairs and practice the presentation they will give of their structural element to their home team.

Teacher

- Checks with each expert group to make sure that students are prepared to explain their illustration in their home team.
- Asks students to return to home teams and explain their illustrations. Reminds students to praise each expert at the end of his or her presentation.

Students

- After presenting illustration, randomly call on team members to paraphrase explanation. Sequence the four illustrations by gluing them on their blank story grids.

Story grids should be collected and saved to comprise a team story notebook. As future story grids are completed, they can be included in the team notebook and used in subsequent lessons.

Teacher

- Checks for understanding by utilizing Simultaneous Numbered Heads Together. Asks a number (e.g., #4) to point to the appropriate structural element (i.e., setting) or the story grid and describe it to teammates. Teammates give help if needed. After discussions in groups, teacher selects one #4 to describe the setting to the whole class. Teacher continues this procedure with other structural elements.

Evaluation (5 min.)

Teacher

- For Group Processing, asks students to complete "Processing Sheet" to evaluate social skills. (See sample sheet at end of unit.) Reminds students to be prepared to give examples of when they used the social skills. In particular, students should identify who praised them for their expert work.

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Makes positive comments concerning the modified Jigsaw activity. Reminds students that their story grids will be added to their team's story notebook.
- Explains to students that tomorrow they will write the story and place it in the team's story notebook.

DAY 4

Lesson Design

Lesson Topic: Story frame completion

Objectives

Academic: Demonstrate understanding of the story by sequencing the events using a story frame.
Follow directions.

Language: Develop aural/oral and written language through completion of a story frame.

Social: Listen to others.
Take turns.
Praise group members.

Total Time: 50 minutes

Teacher Materials: Books available to students; illustrated vocabulary cards; pocket chart

Student Materials: Two story frames (see example at end of unit); two pencils

Key Concept: Sequencing events of a story

Key Vocabulary: Vocabulary from Day 1

Cooperative Structures: Roundtable, Roundrobin, Corners, Group Processing

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus

The purpose of this lesson is to reconstruct the story using a story frame. (See sample form at end of unit.) Students are in the same teams as Day 3.

Input (5 min.)

Teacher

- Explains that at end of lesson, students will share with team members how well they listened, took turns, and praised others.
- Distributes two story frames to each team. Tells students to form pairs on their teams, with students taking turns with their partner in completing the story frame. Students may help each other in writing the sentences.

This activity should not be structured in a race-like format. Teacher should emphasize to students that the goal of this pre-writing activity is to put their thoughts down on paper. Also, the number of sentences is not important; only that the story frame roughly represents the story sequence and the story elements. Students may refer to the team's story grid to help them.

Students with very limited English skills should be with partners who are more proficient English writers and who are responsible for helping them. LEP students might dictate their sentences while their partner writes.

Application (25 min.)

Students

- Partners take turns completing their story frame.

Teacher

- Observes teams and provides assistance when needed. Gives positive reinforcement for what the students produce. With more experience, the quality and quantity of their writing will increase. After they complete their story frames, teacher asks partners to present them to team members.

Students

- Partners present their completed story frames to team members. (Each sentence in the frame should be read by the student who wrote it.) Students thank their partners for their help.
- If time permits, teams can pair with different teams to share story frames in a similar manner.

Evaluation (10 min.)

Teacher

- Recaps the major activities of the unit: for example, predicting the end of the story, filling out the story grid, writing the story frame, and so forth). Asks students to think of their favorite activity. Gives students approximately two minutes to identify the activity and reasons for choosing it.
- For Group Processing, tells students to stand up, find others in the class who have chosen the same activity, and form groups in the classroom.
- Asks students to form pairs within their groups and share reasons for their choice. After sharing in pairs, partners find another pair and form a group of four. Within this group, each student paraphrases his or her partner's reasons for choosing the activity.
- Finally, teacher uses Corners for a whole-class activity, with representatives from each corner explaining reasons for their choice. Teacher reminds students to thank people in their group for their participation.

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Tells students to return to their teams.

- Shares specific positive examples of the students' progress in completing the story frame. Also gives examples of observed achievements (social, linguistic, and academic) by the students during the unit.
- Tells the class that their team story notebooks will be stored in the class library for everyone to read.

SAMPLE STORY FRAME

Title: Author:

The story begins when _____
_____
_____
_____. First, _____
_____
_____. Next, _____
_____
_____ Then, _____
_____
_____. The story ends when _____
_____
_____.

This is a sample story frame. Depending upon the students' language proficiency, the teacher may need to build in more structure. For example, more vocabulary could be provided to help students formulate sentences. More clues could be given through a cloze exercise where the original text of the story is provided with every fifth word deleted. Further modifications of the story frames may be necessary depending upon the story selected.

For more on story frames, see Cudd & Roberts (1987).

For more on cloze exercises, see Buckingham & Yorkey (1984).

SAMPLE PROCESSING SHEET

NAME

Circle one answer.

1. Did I listen to others?	yes	?	no
2. Did I take turns?	yes	?	no
3. Did I praise others?	yes	?	no

After completing this worksheet, students share with team members examples of when they listened, took turns, and praised.

9

Model Unit for Grade 4 Social Studies

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This unit is designed for a fourth grade class of LEP, FEP (multiple languages), and EO students. While written for Spanish-speaking LEP students, the lessons could be modified for use with any language group. It is intended for a class that has had some experience in cooperative learning. Therefore, the lessons do not include extensive Team Building or other activities designed to help students adjust to cooperative structures. Teachers are encouraged to supplement the activities with Team Building strategies in order to promote team and class cohesiveness.

These lessons are based on California's *History–Social Science Framework* (1988b), in which key content for Grade 4 includes studying, analyzing, and discussing the Gold Rush of California (p. 48). Consistent with California's *English–Language Arts Framework* (1987), language arts and social studies are integrated in this unit. Students not only learn how the Gold Rush changed California; they acquire the language needed to discuss, read, and write about it. The unit's Benchmark Product (i.e., culminating activity) is a team skit that dramatizes an immigrant group's experiences during the Gold Rush.

Rationale for Lesson Organization

In order to illustrate the effects of the Gold Rush on the history of California, this unit concentrates on immigration that took place during the Gold Rush and continues to the present. After studying the Gold Rush in general, students analyze the concept of immigration by examining the experiences of immigrants in their own families. They then study the experiences of various immigrant groups that came to California during the Gold Rush period.

The unit is organized in phases rather than individual periods of instruction. The teacher could use some of the activities for a few days or extend the activities over several weeks of instruction. Team folders are used for storing and organizing materials created by the team during the lessons.

Considerations for Meeting the Needs of LEP Students

In addition to the objectives for social studies, the Lesson Design section of each phase describes related language outcomes for LEP students. The objectives are intended to help teachers identify the language that LEP and other students need to participate in the activities.

English is the principal language of instruction in this unit. The LEP students' native language, Spanish, is used for selected activities to ensure that they understand the content and purpose of the lessons. Other specialized strategies for LEP students include the following:

- A "Preview for LEP Students" is provided by the teacher or instructional assistant in homogeneous (LEP-only) groups prior to the lesson. In those classes where LEP students come from a variety of language groups, the preview could be provided in English that is adjusted to the students' proficiency level.
- Bilingual Facilitators—students with proficiency in both English and Spanish—are placed in heterogeneous groups to assist LEP students. Every activity in this unit was designed so that students' limited English proficiency would not be a barrier to their understanding of the lessons or to their full participation in the class.

Monitoring and Evaluation

Effective use of the cooperative learning structures depends on the teacher supporting students and giving immediate and consistent feedback on their academic progress in meeting academic, language, and social objectives. The students are given a great deal of responsibility for their own learning. For example, they choose their topic of study and the method of presenting their research, and they exchange feedback with their peers.

The teacher needs to establish and reinforce cooperative norms so that student interaction is fostered and encouraged within the cooperative group setting, and to give specific feedback throughout the unit. The students need to know when they are to work alone and when they are to work cooperatively within their groups. They also need to know what they are expected to produce, how they will present the information, and how they will be evaluated.

Time Line

Phase I—Introduction to the Gold Rush and Immigration

- Teacher forms teams and facilitates team building.
- Teacher introduces the Gold Rush and the concept of immigration.
- Students share information about their own place of origin.

Phase II—Investigation of the Individual Immigrant Experience

- Teacher reviews concept of immigrant.
- Students interview someone who is an immigrant and shares information with team members.
- Students plot the origins of their interviewees on a world map.

Phase III—Investigation of Immigrant Groups' Experiences

- Teacher reviews experiences of immigrants to California during the Gold Rush.
- Teacher explains roles of ethnic groups present during the Gold Rush.
- Students present team skit on one immigrant/ethnic group's experiences during the Gold Rush.

Instructional Setting

Students: LEP (Spanish-speaking), FEP, and EO

Grade Level: 4

Delivery Mode: English and Spanish

Group Size: Four students per group; heterogeneous grouping according to English language proficiency

PHASE I

During Phase I, the students are introduced to the Gold Rush and the concept of immigration through a student-centered activity in which they discuss the place of origin of each child in the class.

Lesson Design

Content Area: Social Studies

Lesson Topic: Gold Rush and Immigration

Objectives

Academic:	Describe one's place of origin. Understand the concept of immigration.
Language:	Identify and practice aural/oral language needed for group tasks. Write lists, graph information, take notes.
Social:	Listen actively to others. Give and receive help in the team.

Total time for Phase I: 2-3 instructional periods

Materials: Chart paper, 3 x 3-inch colored construction paper, teacher-produced chart, world map (one per team; may also need U.S. map), $8\frac{1}{2}$ x 11-inch lined writing paper, U.S. map, Team Folders, colored markers, tagboard, giue

Cooperative Structures: Three-Step Interview; Teams Share; Group Processing

Instructional Plan

Students are assigned to four-member heterogeneous teams according to English language proficiency. Teams with LEP students include a Bilingual Facilitator. In instances where a Bilingual Facilitator is unavailable, LEP students should be twinned or paired with students who will be responsible for helping them. Students should remain in their heterogeneous teams throughout Phase I, except when grouped homogeneously (e.g., all beginning-level LEP students or all Bilingual Facilitators) for preview or for other activities where supplemental instruction may be necessary.

Preview for Bilingual Facilitators and LEP Students

Before participating in the following activities, the Bilingual Facilitators and LEP students should be grouped together and provided a preview of the lesson in Spanish by the teacher or instructional assistant. In classes where the Bilingual Facilitators are from various language groups, or where staff do not speak Spanish, the preview would be conducted in English at a level adapted to the proficiency of the LEP students. Bilingual Facilitators are used to promote learning partnerships between the LEP students and their fellow team members. The teacher can promote the partnerships by helping the Bilingual Facilitators develop the skills they need to fulfill their role (e.g., active listening, giving help, checking comprehension, etc.).

Before beginning the activities in Phase I, the teacher gives students an assignment to research where they were born (city, state or country) and to find out two things about where they were born.

Teacher

Teacher explains to whole class that in the mid-1800s an event occurred in California that brought many people from different parts of the world to the state. Tells students that this period is known as the Gold Rush, and explains the events that were part of it, emphasizing immigration as the key event.

Teacher pairs students within each team.

Students

Using Three-Step Interview, students ask the following questions of their partners:

a. "Where were you born?" (student names a city, state, or country)

b. "What two things can you tell me about where you were born?"

At the end of the interview, a designated student on each team records the shared information to be used at a later time. (In order to facilitate the activity, teacher may provide a form or the students may design one to use in recording the information.)

Students

Using a world map, students take turns within their teams identifying where they were born. (Depending on the background of the students, teacher may also want to have a map of the United States with the states identified.)

Teacher

Teacher asks each team member to make a visual illustration of his or her place of birth. Illustrations might be drawings of their hometown, the house they first lived in, or the flag of their native country. Team members glue illustrations on chart paper and sign them to form a team poster. Teacher may provide an example.

Teacher asks each team to pair up with a nearby team (Teams Share). One student from each team describes its poster. Next, teams pair up with a new team and a different member describes its poster. Teams display their posters in the classroom.

Teacher then tells everyone that they will make a class graph showing where each student was born. Each student's response for the class graph may be color-coded, using a 3 x 3-inch square of colored construction paper, as shown below. (For example, those students born in the United States may use blue, those born in China, green, etc.) The 3 x 3-inch paper will include a drawing of the child and his or her name and country of birth. Each student mounts the 3 x 3-inch paper on the graph prepared by teacher.

Referring to the graph, teacher illustrates the difference between immigrants and non-immigrants. (Teacher should use questions that encourage students to compare and contrast information; for example, How many students are immigrants? How many students were born in the United States? In Mexico?)

At the end of each instructional period, the teacher needs to allow some time for the student teams to process the social and academic skills

identified in the lesson objectives. The students need time to reflect on and discuss questions such as the following for Group Processing with each other and with the whole class:

a. How did I participate?
b. How did I help?
c. How did I listen?
d. What are two things that I learned through the activities during this lesson?

In addition, the teacher needs to share specific, positive examples of observed social skills and instructional group tasks. After each instructional period, the teacher explains the next day's activities.

PHASE II

In Phase II, the teacher provides additional information on the Gold Rush and reviews the concept of immigrant. Emphasis should be placed on the large number of immigrants who came to California and their reasons for coming. The students investigate an immigrant's experiences within their own family or with someone they know and share information with their team.

Lesson Design

Content Area: Social Studies

Lesson Topic: Immigration

Objectives

Academic: Collect data on an immigrant's experiences. Analyze immigrants' experiences within teams.

Language: Identify and practice aural/oral language needed for group tasks. Write lists, research information, take notes.

Social: Listen to others.
Give and receive help in the team.

Total Time for Phase II: 4-5 instructional periods

Materials: Butcher paper, tape recorder (optional), colored markers, Team Folders, world map, colored yarn

Cooperative Structures: Roundrobin, Roundtable, Group Discussion, Team Word-Webbing, Talking Chips, Similarity Grouping, Group Processing

Instructional Plan

Students remain in their assigned teams. If absences and attrition have resulted in the loss of Bilingual Facilitators or twins for any LEP students,

teacher consults with the teams to determine if and how the issue should be resolved.

Preview for Bilingual Facilitators and LEP Students

Before participating in the following activities, the Bilingual Facilitators and LEP students should be grouped together and provided a preview of the lesson in Spanish by the teacher or instructional assistant.

Teacher presents to whole class more information on the Gold Rush period, emphasizing that just as the people who came to California during the Gold Rush were immigrants, most people today have immigrants in their own families. Teacher tells students that they will interview a family member or an acquaintance who is an immigrant or a relative of an immigrant. Tells students to think about the following question: "If you were to interview someone from another country, what kinds of things would you want to learn about that person?"

Using Roundrobin, team members generate possible questions for interviewing a family member or acquaintance.

In a Roundtable fashion, team members record at least four interview questions on butcher paper. Teacher reminds students to offer assistance to teammates whenever necessary.

Students from each team post questions around the room. Teacher facilitates Group Discussion to select questions that all students will use for the individual interviews. Some sample questions include the following:

a. Is the immigrant related to you? How?
b. Where was the person born?
c. When did the person come to the United States?
d. Where was the first place the person lived?
e. How did the person come to the United States?
f. Why did the person come to the United States?
g. Why did the person come to California?

After the class agrees on a set of questions to be used in the interview, students form pairs on team and practice conducting an interview.

Teacher may need to model interviewing strategy to make sure that the students know what is expected of them.

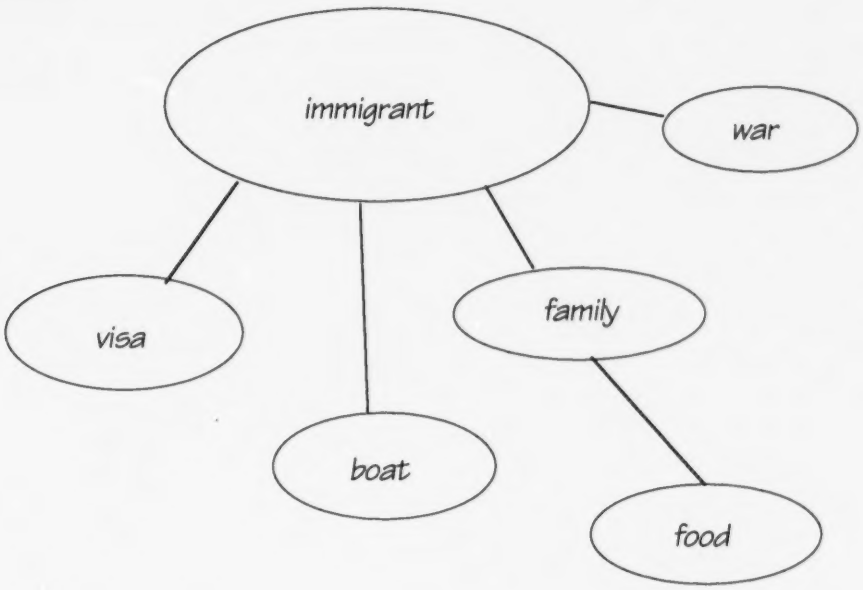
Teacher gives students at least two days to interview the family member or acquaintance. Encourages students to use whichever language is easier (English or their native language) for them and their interviewee. Asks students to keep a record (e.g., taking notes, recording on audio tape) of their interviewee's responses so they can easily report them to their team. Students may bring a photograph or their own drawing of the person they interview, or other memorabilia to add authenticity to the immigrant's experience.

NOTE: During the time that students are conducting their interviews at home, they participate in Activities #7 and #8 in the classroom.

Teacher provides direct instruction on the changes that occurred in California during the Gold Rush period. In order to prepare students for Phase III, it is VERY IMPORTANT to emphasize that many different ethnic groups came to California for many different reasons.

Using Team Word-Webbing, individual students on each team take turns recording, each with a different colored marker, words that they associate with the concept of immigration. Teacher stimulates student thinking by asking, "When you hear the word 'immigrant,' what words come to mind?" Teacher may want to use photographs of immigrants to stimulate the students' imagination.

NOTE: LEP students might illustrate their ideas pictorially instead of using words. Alternatively, the Bilingual Facilitator could help the LEP students write the words.



After students complete their interviews, students on each team use Talking Chips to share the results of their interviews and describe any photographs, illustrations, or memorabilia that they have gathered.

After students share information within their respective teams, teacher asks all team members to stand and circulate around the classroom with their interview material. When teacher gives a signal, everyone must freeze, after which time teacher gives another signal and students pair up with person closest to them to exchange interview information. Teacher may want to set a time limit for sharing information. This process continues for at least three rounds of sharing.

Students return to their home teams. Within their teams, students design a collage that contains pictorial information that represents the results of the four interviews. The collage might include drawings, pictures, or photographs about the people the team members interviewed. Each team member should contribute some pictorial information for the collage.

Each team places its collage around the world map. Using a different color of yarn for each country of origin, students string yarn from the collage to the respective countries from which the immigrants came.

Referring to the world map, teacher leads whole class discussion highlighting similarities and patterns of immigration. Points out the similarities and differences between the interviewees and Gold Rush immigrants regarding their reasons for immigrating.

As an optional Extension Activity, if students interviewed sufficient numbers of immigrants from the same countries, they can use Similarity Grouping to share their information; for example, students who interviewed people from China form one group, those whose interviewees came from Mexico form another group, and so forth. Students in similar groups share information regarding their interviewee's reason(s) for coming to California. Teacher asks for volunteers to share their findings with the whole class.

For processing the social and academic objectives for each lesson, teacher should use suggested questions in the Group Processing section at the end of Phase I.

PHASE III

In Phase III, the teacher reviews reasons why immigrants came to California during the Gold Rush period, highlighting the circumstances that motivated various ethnic groups to immigrate. In addition, the teacher provides background information on those ethnic groups already present at the time of the Gold Rush (e.g., Native Americans, Californios [Mexican-Californians]). Each team will investigate a different ethnic group and its experiences during the Gold Rush and prepare and conduct a team skit based on their research.

Lesson Design

Content Area: Social Studies

Lesson Topic: Immigration

Objectives

Academic: Research and synthesize experiences of different ethnic groups during the Gold Rush period.
Organize information for skit presentation.

Language: Identify and practice oral language needed for skit presentation.

Social: Listen actively to others.
Give and receive help in order to design and conduct team skit.
Give evaluative feedback on presentation.

Total Time for Phase III: 6 instructional periods

Materials: Reference books (see literature selections listed in References at the end of the unit. For their research, students may use these books, as well as encyclopedias, social studies texts, and results of their interviews and their own experiences), chart paper, student processing sheet, colored markers, team folders

Cooperative Structures: Three-Step Interview, Group Processing

Instructional Plan

Students remain in their assigned teams. If absences and attrition have resulted in the loss of Bilingual Facilitators or twins for any LEP students, teacher consults with the teams to determine if and how the issue should be resolved.

Preview for Bilingual Facilitators and LEP Students

Before participating in the following activities, the Bilingual Facilitators and LEP students should be grouped together and provided a preview of the lesson in Spanish by the teacher or instructional assistant.

Teacher reviews concept of immigration, reasons why people immigrate, and immigration represented by many ethnic groups during the Gold Rush.

In order to explain and illustrate these concepts, teacher may utilize the literature selections in the list at the end of the unit.

Teacher explains that each team will design a skit that dramatizes the experiences of one of the many ethnic groups that came to California, or were already present, during the Gold Rush. Skits should be kept short and simple, lasting a maximum of five to ten minutes. Allow teams to use either or both languages to plan and conduct their skits. As many different ethnic groups as possible should be illustrated; if more than one team is interested in the same ethnic group, two teams (at most) may work together. Teams may select from such groups as the Chinese, Europeans, Australians, Mexicans, Native Americans, South Americans, Mexican Californians (Californios), and African Americans.

Teacher provides each team with a worksheet that outlines the guidelines for the skit. All team members should agree on these guidelines and present their team decisions to the teacher before the skit is presented. The worksheet need not be written in final form; students may make notes summarizing their agreements and store them in their Team Folder.

Teacher should encourage students to use a variety of resources in designing their skit: for example, results of the interviews, their own experiences, stories, and movies.

Guidelines

a. Describe the setting for the skit (e.g., gold mine, town, merchant's store, wagon train, etc.).

b. Describe the story (plot). There should be a beginning, middle, and ending. Focus should be on the ethnic group's experiences during the Gold Rush period.

c. List the characters (e.g., mother, father, miner, merchant, cook, sheriff, and bank robber). What other roles are needed for team members, such as stage manager, announcer, props maker, visual effects designer, and costume maker? (LEP students with very limited English proficiency could take roles that do not require extensive language production.)

d. List the props needed, if any. Students should use visuals (charts, graphs, maps, illustrations) and may include culture, music, literature, and food.

e. Identify each team member and their role in presenting the skit.

f. Identify team member(s) who will introduce each student and their role in the skit presentation.

Teacher observes team activities to determine if LEP students are receiving adequate support. Encourages Bilingual Facilitators to provide assistance, if necessary. Notes examples of positive social skills that could be highlighted during Group Processing.

After teams have completed their skit preparation, teacher facilitates whole-class discussion on possible evaluation questions that will be answered by other teams following each skit. These questions should be written on chart paper and posted in the classroom as a reference. Student responses should be brief and feedback should be given in a positive manner. (Teacher should provide students with examples of how feedback can be given constructively.)

Sample questions might include the following:

1. What kind of media were used in the skit?
2. What did you like best about the presentation?
3. What additional information would you have liked?
4. What things did you learn about this ethnic group?

Students present their skits. No more than two skits should be scheduled per day in order to allow time for feedback following the presentations.

Each team develops responses to the evaluation questions that are posted in the classroom and provides oral feedback to the team that presented.

As a concluding activity, teacher asks students to use Three-Step Interview to answer the following questions on their teams:

a. Identify and explain two things that immigrants gained from coming to California.

b. Identify and explain two difficulties that immigrants faced in coming to California.

c. If you were going to immigrate to another country, name two things you would need in order to have a good experience. Explain reasons for your answer.

d. From what activity in this unit did you learn the most about immigration?

e. What part of the unit would you like to have spent more time on? Why?

For processing the social and academic objectives for each lesson, teacher should use suggested questions in the Group Processing section at the end of Phase I. Teacher gives examples of positive social and academic skills demonstrated by students during the unit.

Suggested Reading

The following literature selections may be useful in enriching the activities of this unit. They will be particularly helpful as resources for students in preparing their skits at the end of the unit.

American Heritage. (1961). *The California gold rush*. New York: Author.

Bloch, L. M., Jr. (1984). *A guide for wagon train travelers*. Cleveland, OH: Bloch and Company.

Coerr, E. (1986). *The Josefina story quilt*. New York: Harper and Row.

Fradin, D. B. (1987). *California en palabras y fotos*. Chicago, IL: Childrens Press.

Gilson, J. (1985). *Hello, my name is scrambled eggs*. New York: Lothrop, Lee, and Shepard.

Harvey, B. (1986). *My prairie year*. New York: Holiday House.

Harvey, B. (1987). *Immigrant girl: Becky of Eldridge Street*. New York: Holiday House.

Harvey, B. (1988). *Cassie's journey: Going west in the 1860s.* New York: Holiday House.

Lyngheim, L. (1988). *Gold rush adventure.* Van Nuys: Langtry.

Sandin, J. (1981). *The long way to a new land.* New York: Harper and Row.

Uchida, Y. (1972). *Samurai of gold hill.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

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10

Model Unit for the Secondary Level Intermediate ESL

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This unit is written for a secondary (7-12) ESL class of students with intermediate proficiency in English. The principal objective of the unit is to develop the students' reading and writing skills while refining their oral language development. It is designed for an instructional setting made up of students from a variety of language groups, although it has been used successfully with students from the same language group. During most of the lessons, students are in four-member teams. Each home team is heterogeneous based on such variables as language proficiency, academic ability, ethnicity, personality, and gender. An ideal four-member team would include the following:

- students from different ethnic or linguistic backgrounds;
- leaders and followers;
- one high achiever, two middle achievers, one low achiever;
- two students with good receptive skills, two students with good productive skills;
- two males, two females;
- students who are neither best friends nor worst enemies.

In addition to activities for four-member home teams, this unit includes activities for students in dyads (two members) and expert groups. Dyads should be heterogeneous on as many of the variables described above as possible. Since the unit uses the cooperative Jigsaw structure, expert groups are formed for some activities. They should be as heterogeneous as possible on the above variables. (The Jigsaw activity in this unit is a modification of formal Jigsaw methods. For a description of these methods and the many variations that are possible, see Kagan, 1991.)

In order to meet the needs of some students, such as non-readers, who may have difficulty in the expert groups, the teacher may assign these students to

homogeneous expert groups that the teacher can work with to focus on their particular needs.

Interdependence and social skill development are facilitated by using the following assigned roles:

- Monitor collects and distributes materials and keeps members on task.
- Reader reads assignments.
- Scribe writes as required, maintains team folder, and so forth.
- Evaluator evaluates the team process of working together.

Five-member teams may be used for specific purposes. For example, a student who recently arrived or a non-reader may be assigned as a fifth member who is twinned with one of the other four members of the team. As an alternative for the fifth member, students with sufficient English language skills may be given a different role, such as "Praiser," who encourages positive reinforcement and discourages put-downs among team members.

Students use Learning Logs to record information, thoughts, and opinions and for pre-writing activities such as Brainstorming and Word-Clustering. Teachers may choose to review the Logs in order to monitor student progress.

Rationale for Lesson Organization

In using the folktale genre, this unit is consistent with current thought regarding the importance of integrating the study of literature with language development (see California's *English/Language Arts Framework*, 1987). After studying European folktales, students with limited English proficiency create compositions in English of folktales from their own cultural backgrounds. This writing assignment is designed to reinforce the multicultural traditions of literature. Folktales develop cultural and linguistic insights, assisting students in learning more complex forms of language and literature.

The lessons in this unit are sequenced so that students gradually acquire the ability to write what they have experienced and read. The cooperative learning structures give students a supportive atmosphere in which to write for an interested audience. Their team members are available to help them write words, sentences, paragraphs, and finally, folktales.

Through instructional activities based on cooperative learning methods, natural approaches to language acquisition, and the use of folktales, LEP students develop a cooperative product that validates both their prior and current cultural environments.

Considerations for Meeting the Needs of LEP Students

Because this is an ESL unit, each lesson is focused explicitly on meeting the academic, language, and social needs of LEP students. The methods used in the lessons are based on communicative approaches to second language teaching. Cooperative learning activities enhance these approaches by providing students with opportunities to use English for meaningful purposes within a supportive atmosphere.

This unit is intended to be particularly helpful to teachers of intermediate-level ESL students. The lessons illustrate how literature-based language development can be organized for second language learners, providing them with the high-level skills they will need for mainstream language arts.

It should be noted that students do not actually begin writing their own folktale until they have had extensive language experiences with other folktales and developed a clear understanding of the key elements of a folktale. It is important that students have this background in order to have success in the writing process.

Oral language development forms an important part of the foundation for writing. In addition to the activities provided in this unit, teachers may want to consider using additional language development activities found in such supplemental texts as *Jazz Chant Fairy Tales* (Graham, 1988).

Monitoring and Evaluation

Teacher-made Jigsaw worksheets and quizzes are used in conjunction with the students' own writing as tools of evaluation. Evaluation and Closure activities include having students talk about how they are doing in meeting the social and academic objectives. At this time, teachers are encouraged to give feedback to the class based on their own observations.

Time Line

Day 1—Story Sequence: Putting folktales into sequence. (Dyads)

Day 2—Story Sequence: Writing sentences of folktales in sequence. (Home Teams)

Day 3—Story Elements: Identifying characters and plots of folktales. (Jigsaw)

Day 4—Story Elements: Identifying characters and plots of folktales. (Jigsaw)

Day 5—Story Telling: Recalling folktales from personal experience. (Individual Guided Imagery)

Day 6—Story Telling: Drawing illustrations and writing sentences of story. (Home Teams)

Day 7—Writing: Writing and developing folktales. (Individual/Home Teams)

Instructional Setting

Students: LEP (multiple languages)

Grade Levels: 7-12

Type of Class: Intermediate ESL

Delivery Mode: English

Group Size: Four students per home team, heterogeneous by language proficiency, academic ability, gender, and ethnicity. Dyads and expert groups are also used.

Lesson Design

Content Area: Language Arts

Lesson Topic: Folktales

Objectives

Academic: Understand story sequence.
Understand story elements.
Understand the folktale genre.
Write a folktale.

Language: Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English.

Social: Seek and give help.
Participate successfully in group activities.
Follow role assignments.

Total Time: Seven periods of instruction (one per day for seven days)

Key Concepts: Story sequence (beginning, middle, end); story elements (title, character, plot); folktale as genre; writing as a process

Key Vocabulary: Title, list, order, sequence, folktale, beginning, middle, end, problem, what happens, plot, happy ending, who, characters, main idea, elements

Cooperative Structures: Match Mine, Three-Step Interview, Jigsaw, Roundtable, Group Processing, Three-Step Interview

DAY 1

Materials

Chalkboard; envelopes (two per team); sample student-made folktale book; two folktales with accompanying storyboards; model storyboard for demonstration (see sample storyboards at the end of the unit)

Preparation

Select two folktales appropriate for the students' reading level. (See samples at end of unit: *Red Riding Hood* and *The Three Little Pigs*.) Note that there are two versions for each of the stories, one easy and one difficult. For the following activities, the easier ones should be used. Depending on the experiences of the students, the teacher may want to work with one or two additional folktales for the lessons.

Duplicate copies of each folktale (one set per dyad). Put folktales and accompanying individually cut pictures from the storyboard into color-coded envelopes, with envelopes of the same story having the same color. Prepare model storyboard, enlarged if possible, for teacher demonstration.

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus (5 min.)

The focus of this lesson is for students to learn the sequence of two selected folktales. Students are in dyads as teacher introduces the lesson. Dyads are formed by pairing students within their four-member home teams.

If there are non-readers in the class, the teacher may read the folktales to them or have them listen to cassette recordings of the stories prior to the following activity. During instruction, these students are either one of the four members of a team or twinned with one of the members.

Teacher

- Explains that during the next few days, students will study folktales, write their own folktales, and contribute to a team folktale book. Today's lesson is the first in a series of activities.
- Explains that students, with the help of their partners, will study two folktales. Show a sample book of folktales to the class.
- Emphasizes the elements of a folktale: e.g., title, characters, plot (beginning, middle, and end).

Input (10 min.)

Teacher

- With instructional assistant or student volunteer, illustrates how dyads will use Match Mine structure to sequence pictures (i.e., storyboards) for each folktale. (See sample story boards at end of unit.) In Match Mine, students in dyads sit so that they cannot see each other's picture sequence. One partner explains the sequence while the other duplicates it.
- If a large storyboard model is available, the teacher points to it and shows how to place pictures in proper order.

- To demonstrate Match Mine activity, teacher sits in chair, back-to-back with assistant. Opens envelope containing one written folktale and separately cut pictures that represent the sequence of story. Gives pictures to assistant. Reads story, while assistant places pictures in sequence on top of the desk. A piece of cardboard may also be used as a lapboard. After sequencing pictures, partners confer to make sure order is correct.
- Explains that when student dyads do Match Mine, partners will switch roles and repeat activity with the same folktale.

Application (15 min.)

Teacher

- Passes out two color-coded envelopes to each dyad. Explains that one student will read the story while partner sequences the corresponding pictures. Asks students to work on stories in order of the colors written on the chalkboard. This will help teacher monitor the activity.
- After sequencing first story, tells students to switch roles of reading and sequencing.

Students

- In dyads, one student reads and partner sequences first of two folktales. After sequencing pictures, partners confer to make sure order is correct. They switch roles and repeat activity with the same folktale.
- Follow same process with second folktale.

Teacher

- Observes dyads and supports any students who need help reading or sequencing story.

Evaluation (10 min.)

Teacher

- Asks students to form dyads on their four-member home teams and use Three-Step Interview with the following questions to discuss the Match Mine activity.
  1. What was easy?
  2. What was difficult?
  3. How did you give help to your teammates?
- Asks each member to paraphrase the team's discussion in Learning Logs. Encourages team members to help teammates with their writing, if necessary.

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Commends the students for good work they did with Match Mine. Tells them that tomorrow they will study these folktales again in their home teams.

DAY 2

Materials

Color-coded envelopes for each of two folktales containing individually cut pictures from storyboards and text of the folktales

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus (5 min.)

The purpose of this lesson is to write sentences from a folktale and put them in sequence. Key vocabulary is reviewed. Students are in their four-member home teams.

Input/Application (20 min.)

Teacher

- Assigns roles: Monitor, Reader, Scribe, and Evaluator. The teacher should give examples of the responsibilities of each role, identify vocabulary and expressions associated with the roles, and give students opportunities during the unit to discuss how effectively they are using their roles.
- Gives Monitors of each team color-coded envelopes containing the two stories and tells them to work on each folktale in the order of colors written on the chalkboard. Uses simple or difficult versions of folktales, depending on level of the class.
- For each of two folktales, tells teammates to put their heads together to find the title, first sentence, two important middle sentences, and the last sentences.

Students

- Teammates identify the title, first sentence, two key middle sentences, and last sentence. Readers on each team re-read the identified sentences, and Scribes write them on a piece of paper.

Teacher

- Observes teams, noting points to highlight during Closure; provides support if necessary.

Students

- Continue with second folktale.

Evaluation (20 min.)

Teacher

- Asks each team to review for accuracy what its Scribe has written. Students are allowed to check their work against the texts of the folktales in the envelopes.
- Tells Evaluator from each team to take its team's work and share it with a team on its left. Evaluator reads team's work; listening team verifies for accuracy; Evaluator returns to home team.
- Uses Group Processing to have the teams discuss how well they worked together. Asks questions such as those listed below. Has teams discuss one question at a time, with each team member giving at least one example for each question.
  1. How did you participate?
  2. How did you receive help?
  3. How did you help your teammates?
  4. What did you like about the activity?

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Reminds whole class that what they have done is identify sentences that represent the sequence of a folktale. Gives positive feedback on observations of group work. Highlights examples of effective use of role assignments.
- Explains that Days 3 and 4 will involve Jigsaw activities.

DAY 3

Materials

Learning Logs; copies of folktales for Jigsaw expert groups (one copy per team of two folktales); copies of two-column chart, one per team (see sample below); copies of Jigsaw expert worksheets (one per student); copies of quiz (see sample of worksheet and quiz at end of unit). It may help teacher to color

code stories, Jigsaw expert groups, and Jigsaw worksheets to assist in distributing and monitoring materials.

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus (5 min.)

The lessons in Days 3 and 4 are designed to reinforce the elements of character and plot in a story. Students are in their home teams.

Input/Application (15 min.)

Teacher

- Explains that the people or animals in the stories they studied in Days 1 and 2 are called characters, a very important element of a story.
- Tells the students that they will use Roundtable to write the names of as many characters as they can remember from the stories they studied in Days 1 and 2. Distributes one chart per team to the Monitors.

CHART

Folktale #1	Folktale #2

Students

- Rotate one chart among team members. Taking turns, each student lists characters, one at a time, from Folktale #1. List characters under Folktale #1 until completed; then list characters from Folktale #2. If necessary, team members should help each other to write names of the characters.
- When finished, team members add any missing characters to lists. Scribes write any missing characters on the chart.

Teacher

- Tells students to copy the two lists of characters in their Learning Logs and to write the word "characters" next to each list. Asks Evaluators on each team to make sure that teammates are helping or receiving help, if necessary.

Input/Application (25 min.)

Teacher

- Explains that in the next set of activities, students leave their home teams to work in Jigsaw expert groups. Expert groups should be heterogeneous in terms of English language proficiency, gender, and ethnicity.

If there are students in this class who are recent arrivals or very limited in English, the teacher may form homogeneous expert groups according to language proficiency where students can be provided extra support and special instruction. The teacher may provide more structure and facilitate participation in expert groups by assigning a leader and Bilingual Facilitator.

If there are more than seven students in one expert group, divide them into two groups. Half of the expert groups work on one folktale, while half work on the other. Teacher distributes one copy of folktale and corresponding worksheets to each student in expert groups.

Students

- Expert groups work together to complete worksheets. Groups should reach consensus on the answers to the questions.

Teacher

- Monitors each expert group and provides support if needed. Encourages students to write answers in their own words and to avoid copying word-for-word from team members. It is important to emphasize to each expert group that students should have correct answers on their worksheets before returning to their home groups.

Evaluation (10 min.)

Teacher

- Tells students in expert groups to form pairs, exchange worksheets, and check each other's responses. After review, students return worksheets; each partner reads responses aloud to partner, preparing for presentation to his or her home team. Partners help with any problem areas.

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Tells students to interview friends and family in order to identify a folktale from their own culture. They will use this folktale in the final activities of this unit. They should find out the title, beginning, middle, and end of the story, just as they did in Day 2. Point out that the beginning, middle, and end represent the plot of the story.

DAY 4

Materials

Completed and blank Jigsaw expert worksheets; Jigsaw quiz

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus (5 min.)

In this lesson, students return to their four-member home teams where each member presents information from completed Jigsaw expert worksheets.

Input/Application (20 min.)

Teacher

- Tells students to form their home teams. Asks students to assume their roles of Monitor, Evaluator, Reader, and Scribe. These roles will be helpful in facilitating the experts' presentations to teammates. The teacher should review specific responsibilities, vocabulary, and sentence structures associated with each role.

Students

- Monitor will manage the materials; Evaluator will observe the group's interactions; Scribe and Reader will check written work.

Teacher

- Passes out blank worksheets to each team. Tells students that they will now present to their team members what they learned in their expert groups. Each team should have two members who studied one folktale and two who studied the other. Partners should take turns presenting answers to each of the four questions on the worksheets; e.g., student #1 takes questions #1 and #3, student #2 takes questions #2 and #4.

Students

- Each team member presents information from his or her worksheet. Students should concentrate on main ideas from the worksheets (i.e., plot and characters). Students fill in answers to the questions on two worksheets.

Teacher

- Urges students to write answers to questions only after they understand them and to write in their own words. This is not a dictation exercise. Observes team activities and notes examples of positive role behaviors that will be noted in the Closure.

Evaluation (10 min.)

Teacher

- Asks if there are any questions about plot and characters. Passes out copies of the quiz to Monitors to distribute to their team members.

Students

- Take and correct quizzes within their groups.

Teacher

- Reviews results of the quiz with class.

Closure (15 min.)

Teacher

- Asks students to use Group Processing to discuss their role assignments with their team members. Questions to ask include the following:
  1. What is easy about my role?
  2. What is difficult about my role?
  3. How can I improve my role?
- Asks Evaluator on each team to facilitate discussion and share observations of team's interactions. Encourages team members to give positive feedback to fellow students regarding their role assignments.
- Provides positive reinforcement to whole class regarding their Jigsaw activities. Gives examples noted earlier of positive role behaviors.
- Reminds students to interview friends and family to identify a folktale from their own culture. They should find out the title, beginning, middle, and end of the story. They will use this folktale in Day 6 of this unit.

DAY 5

Materials

Cassette music tape and player; Learning Logs; blank six-frame storyboards

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus (5 min.)

During the next two lessons, students will write a folktale from their own culture or family experience. These writing activities are designed to build on what students have learned about folktales in previous lessons. Each team will compile a Team Folktale Book made up of folktales and illustrations by each team member. Students are in their home teams.

Input (15 min.)

Teacher

- Guided Imagery. Asks students to clear their desks of everything except their Learning Logs. Turns the lights off and tells students to close their eyes. They can also put their heads down on their desks to be more comfortable.
- Turns on music tape. Soft instrumental music is effective for this activity. Guides the students' imagery by saying something like the following:

  > Think far back. Remember when you were a child. Who told you a story like "Little Red Riding Hood," or "The Three Little Pigs"? Maybe it was your grandmother, your mother or father, your grandfather, or a friend. What story did they tell you? What is the name of that story? Who is in it? Do you see the story? How does the story begin? What is happening in that story? How does the story end?

- Several minutes are usually sufficient for guided imagery. Teacher slowly talks the students out of their thoughts so that they don't lose the pictures in their imagination.
- Turns off music and tells students not to say one word. Tells them to open their Learning Logs and write the name of the story that they just thought of. Asks them to share title with team member.

Students

- Write the title of their folktale in their Learning Logs.
- Evaluators ask team members to give the titles of their folktales. Scribes make a list of team members and write their folktale titles next to their

names. When finished, Readers recap by reading the list to team members. Monitors turn in team list to teacher.

Teacher

- Explains that the team list will be used to keep a record of students' writing assignments. Writes the following story elements on the chalkboard and asks the students to copy them in their Learning Logs.

Title
Characters
Beginning
Middle } *Plot = beginning, middle, end*
End

Application (20 min.)

Teacher

- Asks students to write in their Learning Logs the title, the names of characters, and at least one sentence under each of the story elements. Observes group interactions and helping behaviors.

Students

- Each team member writes the appropriate information from his or her folktale under each story element. Students work individually, but receive help from team members if necessary.
- When finished, team members check each other's work. Teacher tells students to identify any problem areas: for example, parts of the story that are mislabeled, missing details, and so forth. Students make revisions, if needed.

Teacher

- Passes out blank storyboards to Monitors. Explains that each student will draw simple illustrations that represent the sequence of their folktale.

Students

- Individual students draw illustrations in each of the six panels of their storyboards.

Closure (10 min.)

Teacher

- Asks students to share their illustrations with team members. Asks teams to check each member's illustrations.

- Has Evaluators on each team facilitate Group Processing for the following questions:
  1. How did I seek help from team members when I needed it?
  2. How did I receive help from team members when I needed it?
- Commends good helping behaviors observed during team activities. If necessary, helps resolve conflicts on any teams.
- For homework, tells students to finish writing the story elements and drawing the illustrations for their stories.

DAY 6

Materials

Transparency of storyboard from Day 1; blank transparency, cut in about nine strips; scissors; pack of 3 x 5 index cards; envelopes; overhead projector

Instructional Plan

Introduction and Lesson Focus (10 min.)

For the remaining lessons in this unit, students will complete individual write-ups of their folktales and compile them into a Team Folktale Book. Students are in home teams.

Teacher

- Models writing process by using a transparency of a storyboard from one of the two folktales studied in Days 1-4.
- Puts storyboard on overhead projector. Asks students to generate one-sentence descriptors for each picture. Writes sentences on chalkboard.
- Copies each sentence on six different strips and places them under appropriate picture on storyboard transparency. Explains that students will do the same with their own folktales using strips cut from index cards.

Input/Application (25 min.)

Teacher

- Asks monitors from each team to collect a pair of scissors, about ten index cards, and four envelopes.

Students

- Cut each index card into three lengthwise strips. Students write six sentences about their folktales on index card strips, one sentence per strip. They should

refer to their Learning Logs and the beginning, middle, and end sentences they wrote in Day 5.

Teacher

- Tells students to form pairs on their teams and share their index card strips. Partners provide feedback on clarity. Teacher monitors pair activity and checks strips.

Students

- Each student puts sentence strips and illustrated storyboards in an envelope. Students put name and title of folktale on envelope.

Evaluation (10 min.)

Teacher

- Uses Group Processing to have teams discuss how well they worked together. Has students ask questions such as those listed below, one question at a time, with each team member giving at least one example for each question.
  1. How did you receive help?
  2. How did you help your teammates?
  3. What did you learn from the activity?

As a follow-up or alternative evaluation, students pass their storyboards and strips to team members who match the strips to the illustrations.

Closure (5 min.)

Teacher

- Tells students that tomorrow they will write their folktales in their home groups.
- Provides feedback on how students did in their home teams, noting examples of positive interaction among students.

DAY 7

Materials

Overhead projector; transparency strips; glue; construction paper; sample student-made folktale book

Instructional Plan

(Note: Time estimates are not provided in this lesson since these activities will probably take longer than one instructional period.)

Introduction and Lesson Focus

Teacher

- Explains that in this lesson students will write their folktales in story form. As they write their stories, they will add sentences to the six already written.

Input

Teacher

- Models the writing process with the following demonstration.
- Places six transparency strips from folktale used in Day 6 out of sequence on overhead projector. As whole-class activity, asks students for title and writes it in title style on a transparency strip on the projector.
- Whole class helps teacher sequence strips on projector. (Or as an alternative, strips could be photocopied for each team and each team sequences story.)
- Next, asks students on each team to think of one sentence to add to story that would give it more detail.

Students

- Each team reaches consensus on one sentence and writes it on transparency strip. Monitors bring strips to overhead projector and place strips in proper place in the story. In placing the strips, monitors may not touch strips other than their own.

Teacher

- Asks each team to read the expanded story on the overhead. Decides if all sentences are properly placed.
- Gives students positive reinforcement for improving story. Explains that this is the format and process they should use for expanding and improving their own folktales.

Application

Teacher

- Asks students to write their own folktales in their Learning Logs in their home teams. Pointing to the sample student-made folktale book, explains that each team will make its own book, made up of each member's folktale and illustrated storyboard.

- Explains that individual students should first write their folktale, adding sentences to the six they already have. Next, they should color their storyboards and mount them on a piece of construction paper.

Students

- Individual students write their folktales. After completing them, they pass them around for review by team members. Students help each other clarify and improve parts of the stories.
- Individual students color and mount storyboards. They copy folktales from Learning Logs onto a separate sheet of paper and bind stories and storyboards together into Team Folktale Book.

The writing of the folktales and preparation of the Team Folktale Books will probably have to be extended into other lessons. The teacher may want to evaluate individual folktales before the books are completed.

Evaluation

Teacher

- Explains that students should edit and revise their own folktales based on their review and the review of their team members. Teacher should review each member's work after the team has completed its review.
- Uses observational data gathered during the writing process to give positive reinforcement to teams and individuals for notable accomplishments.

Closure

Teacher

- Considers a variety of extension activities, such as the following, to build on the writing process in this unit.

1. Asks teams to review other Team Folktale Books. Students should look for effective titles, character descriptions, plot development, beginnings, endings, and so forth.

2. Reviews Team Folktale Books and notes any consistent problems that students are having with story elements, grammar, structure, or usage. These points could be topics for future lessons.

3. Has students further develop their Team Folktale Books by designing front and back covers, a title page, table of contents, maps to show the origin of the folktales, and so forth. Books could be put on display in the library.

JIGSAW EXPERT WORKSHEET

Name_____

Team Name_____

1. Write the title of the story.
2. List the characters of the story.
3. In the right order, list at least six things that happened in the story.
4. Write a new title for the story.
5. I like the new title because _____

JIGSAW QUIZZES

Two alternative quizzes are provided so that teachers can choose the form that is most appropriate for their classes. They are intended as a quick evaluation of the students' understanding of the structure and contents of the folktales. More elaborate assessment done in the writing portion of this unit will determine the students' deeper understanding of folktales.

Match the following:

1. three pigs	a. the name
2. title	b. what happens
3. Red Riding Hood	c. story
4. plot	d. house of bricks
5. sequence	e. parts
6. characters	f. the animals or people of a story
7. elements	g. Grandmother
8. folktale	h. first to last order

Complete the following:

1. The people in the story are called the _____.
2. The order of events in a story is called the _____.
3. The grandmother is a character in _____.
4. The parts of the story are called the _____.
5. Mr. Man is one of the characters in _____.

The simplified versions that follow are modified from the published stories.*

RED RIDING HOOD (SIMPLIFIED VERSION)

Mother gave Red Riding Hood a basket of food for her grandmother. On her way through the woods, Red met the wolf. He ran ahead to the grandmother's house and pretended that he was the grandmother. "What big eyes you have!" said Red Riding Hood. "And what big ears you have!" Red Riding Hood screamed when the wolf tried to eat her. The woodcutter came and frightened the wolf away.

Sample Storyboard RED RIDING HOOD

*Artists and Writers Guild, Inc., 1944.

Little Red Riding Hood (detailed version)

Once upon a time, in a cottage at the edge of a thick forest, lived a little girl and her mother. The little girl always wore a little red cape her grandmother had made for her with a red hood to cover her curly hair. So the neighbors called her Little Red Riding Hood. One morning, Red Riding Hood's mother put a loaf of crusty brown bread, some spiced meat, and a bottle of wine into a basket and said to her, "I want you to take these goodies to your grandmother, who is sick. But be sure to go straight along the woods path and do not stop to play or talk to any strangers." Little Red Riding Hood promised to be careful. She put on her red cape and hood, took the little basket, and started off. She loved the walk through the thick forest where all the flowers and birds and little animals lived. But today she did not stop to play with any of her friends in the forest.

All of a sudden, from behind a big oak tree a great gray wolf appeared. He was an evil-looking fellow, but he smiled at Little Red Riding Hood and said sweetly, "Good morning, my dear. Where are you going this fine day?" "My grandmother is sick and I am going to her house in the woods, to take her this basket from my mother. My mother told me not to stop on my way or to talk to strangers." "You should always obey your mother," said the wolf, getting hungry as he looked at Red Riding Hood. "I don't want to delay you because you have a long way to go. Bye-bye." As the wolf disappeared among the trees, Red Riding Hood continued toward her grandmother's house.

Meanwhile, the evil wolf had taken a shortcut through the woods so that he could reach the grandmother's house before Little Red Riding Hood. "Who is there?" asked the grandmother, who was still in bed. "It is I, Little Red Riding Hood," said the wolf, trying to make his voice soft and sweet. "Come in, my dear," said the grandmother. The wolf entered the cottage and ate up the grandmother in one big bite. He then put on her nightgown and nightcap and climbed into her bed. He quickly pulled the sheet up over his long nose as Little Red Riding Hood knocked at the door.

"Who's there?" asked the wolf, trying to make his voice sweet and quavery. "It is I, Little Red Riding Hood." "Come in, my dear child," said the wolf. Red Riding Hood entered the cottage and put her little basket down on the table. "Now come closer, my sweet," said the wolf. "Granny, what big ears you have!" cried Red Riding Hood. "All the better to hear you with, my dear," said the wolf. "And Granny, what big eyes you have!" cried Little Red Riding Hood. "The better to see you with, my dear," said the wolf. "And Granny, what big teeth you have!" "The better to EAT you with!" snapped the evil wolf as he lunged toward Red Riding Hood. She cried for help as she ran out of the cottage and straight into the arms of a strong woodcutter.

The woodcutter ran into the cottage and with one blow of his axe killed the nasty wolf. He cut open the wolf and out stepped Little Red Riding Hood's

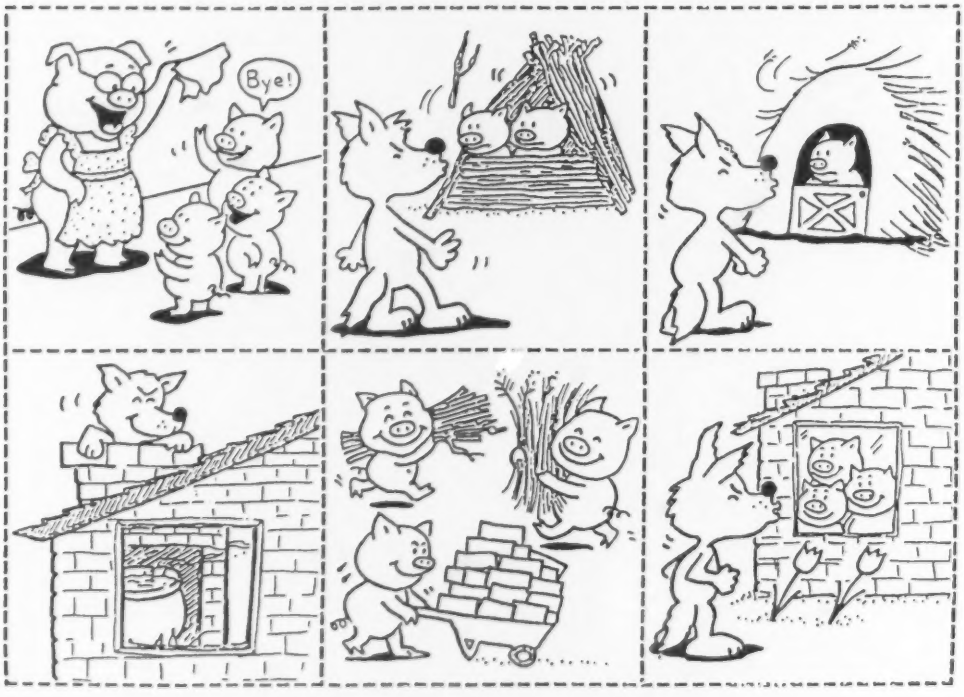
grandmother! She hugged and kissed Little Red Riding Hood warmly and thanked the woodcutter for saving their lives. Then they enjoyed a nice lunch made from the food that the little girl had brought in her basket.

Since that frightening day, there has never been another wolf seen in the thick forest, but Little Red Riding Hood doesn't take any chances. She stays on the path, does not stop along the way, and never talks to strangers.

THE THREE LITTLE PIGS (SIMPLIFIED VERSION)

Three little pigs set out to build homes of their own. The first little pig threw together a simple house of straw; but soon the wolf came and blew it away. The pig ran to the second pig's house made of sticks. Again the wolf came and blew the house down. The pigs ran to the third pig's house built of strong bricks. The wolf could not blow it down. He tried to go down the chimney, but the pigs had a pot of hot water in the fireplace.

Sample Storyboard — THE THREE LITTLE PIGS



THE THREE LITTLE PIGS (DETAILED VERSION)

Once upon a time, there was a mother pig who had three little pigs. As the pigs grew up, the mother had a harder and harder time taking care of them, so she decided to send the young ones out into the world to make their own fortunes. One fine morning, the three pigs started out into the wide world, each taking a different road.

The first little pig walked along in the world until he met a man carrying a load of straw. "Please, Mr. Man," said the first little pig, "give me some straw so that I can build me a little house." So the man gave the first pig some straw and he built himself a house.

The pig was not living in his house for long when a wicked wolf came along and shouted, "Little pig, little pig, let me in, let me in!" "Not by the hair of my chinny, chin, chin!" answered the first little pig. "If you don't," said the wolf, "I'll huff and I'll puff and I'll blow your house in!" But the first little pig wouldn't open the door. So the wolf huffed and he puffed and he blew the house in, and he ate up the first little pig.

The second little pig walked along until he met a man with a load of sticks. "Please, Mr. Man," said the second little pig. "Give me some sticks so that I can build me a little house." So the man gave him some sticks and the pig built himself a house.

The second little pig was not living in his house of sticks for long when a wicked wolf came along and shouted, "Little pig, little pig. Let me in, let me in!" "Not by the hair of my chinny, chin, chin!" answered the second little pig. "If you don't," cried the wolf, "I'll huff and I'll puff and I'll blow your house in!" But the second little pig wouldn't open the door, so the wolf huffed and he puffed and he blew the house in, and he ate up the second little pig.

The third little pig walked until he met a man with a load of bricks. "Please, sir, give me some bricks to build me a little house." The man gave the third little pig some bricks to build his house. After the little pig had finished his house, along came the wolf. "Little pig, little pig, let me in!" he called. "Not by the hair of my chinny, chin, chin!" answered the third little pig. "If you don't," said the wolf, "I'll huff and I'll puff and I'll blow your house in!" But the third little pig would not open the door, so the wolf huffed and he puffed and he puffed and he huffed, but he couldn't blow the house in.

Then the wicked wolf walked off, muttering to himself, "Little pig, little pig, I'll catch you yet!" Soon he returned to the little pig's house. "Little pig," he called in his sweetest voice, "if you will meet me in Farmer Brown's garden at six o'clock tomorrow morning, I will show you where the most beautiful turnips grow."

The next morning the little pig got up at five o'clock and hurried over to Mr. Brown's garden. By the time the wolf came at six, the little pig was safe and sound at home again with the turnips cooking on the stove. So the wicked wolf

walked off, muttering to himself, "Little pig, little pig, I'll catch you yet." Soon he was back at the little pig's house. "Little pig," he called in his sweetest voice, "if you will meet me in Farmer Brown's orchard at five o'clock tomorrow morning, I will show you where the best apples are."

The next morning the little pig got up at four o'clock and hurried over to Mr. Brown's orchard. But suddenly he saw the wolf coming while he was still picking apples from the tree. "So you have found the apples," said the wolf, thinking he had finally trapped the little pig. "Yes, would you like to try one?" said the little pig, as he threw down a big red apple to the wolf. But he threw it so hard that it rolled down a big hill and the wolf had to go chasing after it. The little pig hurried down the tree and ran home with his basket full of apples.

When the wolf found that he had been tricked, he walked off, muttering to himself, "Little pig, little pig, I'll catch you yet." Soon he returned to the little pig's door. "Little pig," he called once again in his sweetest voice, "tomorrow there is a fair in the village. If you will meet me there at three o'clock, I will show you where you can find the best bargains." The next day the little pig arrived by two o'clock and bought a new butter churn. He was just beginning his trip home when he saw the wolf coming up the road. There was no place to hide, so he jumped into the churn and away he went, rolling down the hill toward the wolf. The wolf was so scared that he ran as fast as he could go. The little pig rolled in his churn straight on home!

When the wolf found that he had been tricked again, he walked off, muttering once again, "Little pig, little pig, I'll catch you this time." So he climbed up on the roof of the little pig's house and called down the chimney, "Now little pig, I am coming down to eat you up!" "Oh, you are?" answered the pig, and he took the lid off a huge pot of boiling water that was on the fire, just as the wolf jumped down the chimney.

The wolf tumbled down the chimney into the pot of boiling water. Then the little pig put the lid back on the pot, and that was the end of the wolf.

Acknowledgments

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11

Model Unit for Grade 10 History–Social Science

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This unit is designed for a 10th grade world history class consisting of relatively equal numbers of LEP (multiple languages), FEP, and EO students. The LEP students have been placed in a mainstream classroom based on their teacher's assessment that their English language proficiency (i.e., intermediate fluency) is sufficient to participate effectively. The unit is organized based on the assumption that the students have been working in cooperative groups for several months. It is, however, the first time that the class has used Co-Op Co-Op, a formal cooperative learning structure designed for use over several instructional periods.

Co-Op Co-Op is particularly useful for creating conditions that stimulate the students to make key decisions regarding the content and structure of learning tasks. According to Kagan (1990),

> (Co-Op Co-Op) is structured to maximize the opportunity for small groups of students to work together to further their own understanding and development—usually, but not always, in the form of producing a group product—and then to share this product or experience with the whole class so that other class members also may profit. (p. 14:2)

An overview of the steps to Co-Op Co-Op is provided on p. 173. A more detailed description of the rationale and steps to Co-Op Co-Op can be found in Kagan (1991). The Co-Op Co-Op structure and the phases used to organize this unit are related to Group Investigation, a cooperative learning method developed by Shlomo and Yael Sharan (see Sharan, Hare, Webb, & Hertz-Lazarowitz, 1980).

Rationale for Lesson Organization

The unit uses an integrated approach to the teaching of history and social sciences. Based on California's *History–Social Science Framework* (1988b), it integrates the rise of imperialism and colonialism, a key world history concept for 10th grade, with related social and language skills.

Unlike other units in this volume, this unit is not a series of detailed lesson plans for several instructional periods. Rather, the teacher is provided general guidelines to follow in using Co-Op Co-Op to study colonialism in depth over several instructional periods. The unit is not organized in terms of periods of instruction. Rather, it is broken out into three phases. Depending on the design of the course, the teacher could use some of the activities for a few days or follow the format over several weeks of instruction. Also, before beginning the Co-Op Co-Op activities, some classes may need background information on colonialism and the geography of the countries that will be studied.

Considerations for Meeting the Needs of LEP Students

In addition to objectives for world history, the unit identifies related language outcomes. This is intended to help teachers provide LEP and other students with the language they need to participate in the activities. Further, Co-Op Co-Op has built-in opportunities for students to help each other within and among teams in the class; this will assist the teacher in monitoring the performance of the LEP students.

Co-Op Co-Op also gives students choices for the content they want to study and the group tasks for which they are responsible. This should increase the probability that the tasks will be motivating and suited to the students' abilities. Co-Op Co-Op is designed to foster the students' self-direction and independence in learning. However, the teacher may need to modify some of the activities in this unit to provide more guidance, depending on the students' needs. For example, worksheets with questions to answer, in English or the students' native language, will facilitate group participation by students whose English language skills are limited.

Monitoring and Evaluation

Effective implementation of Co-Op Co-Op, as well as other cooperative learning methods, depends on the teacher carefully supporting students and giving them feedback on their progress in meeting academic, language, and social objectives. Compared to other cooperative structures, the students are given a great deal of responsibility for their learning; they choose their topics of study, the method of presenting their research, and give feedback to their peers.

The teacher needs to establish and reinforce cooperative norms so that students know that it is all right to help each other. They need to know when they are supposed to work alone or be in their groups. They also need to know what they are expected to produce and how they will be evaluated. In order to accomplish these ends, Team Building activities should be incorporated regularly into the lessons.

In Co-Op Co-Op, students should receive positive, supportive feedback not only from the teacher, but also from their peers. Peer feedback is focused on learning outcomes; that is, what students did to help each other learn about colonialism.

Time Line

Phase I—Introduction to Colonialism
- Teacher forms teams and facilitates team building.
- Teacher introduces and illustrates key concepts related to colonialism.
- Students choose preferred research strategies (mini-topics).

Phase II—Studying about Countries in Colonialism
- Partner teams choose two countries involved in a colonial relationship.
- Partner teams conduct research on mini-topics.
- Students present mini-topics to team members.

Phase III—Sharing with Others
- Partner teams design and prepare presentations for whole class.
- Benchmark Product: Teams present to class.
- Students and teacher give feedback to team members and teams.

Steps of Co-Op Co-Op

1. Whole-class discussion dealing with students' interests and needs related to the lesson topic.
2. Formation of heterogeneous teams (teacher-assigned or student-selected).
3. Team building and cooperative skill development.
4. Selection of the team's topic.
5. Selection of mini-topics by individual team members.
6. Mini-topic research and preparation of mini-topic presentations to fellow team members.
7. Presentation of mini-topics.
8. Preparation of team presentations to whole class.
9. Team presentations to whole class.
10. Feedback to teams and individual team members.

Instructional Setting

Students: LEP (multiple languages), FEP, and EO

Grade Level: 10

Delivery Mode: English

Group Size: Four students per group; heterogeneous according to English language proficiency

PHASE I

During Phase I, students learn about the dynamics of colonialism through a case study of Great Britain and India. They also learn about strategies they may use when they do research topics for their Co-Op Co-Op assignment.

Lesson Design

Content Area: World History

Lesson Topic: Colonialism

Objectives

Academic: Describe the key concepts of colonialism.
Apply knowledge of colonialism to the past and present relationship between Great Britain and India.
Identify alternative approaches to conducting research.

Language: Identify and practice aural/oral language needed for group tasks.
Write lists and take notes.

Social: Listen actively to others.
Take roles needed for group tasks.
Give and receive help in the group.

Total Time for Phase I: 3-4 instructional periods

Instructional Plan

Students are in four-member heterogeneous teams according to English language proficiency. Where possible, a Bilingual Facilitator is a member of those teams with LEP students. Where a Bilingual Facilitator is not available, LEP students are twinned with students who are responsible for helping them. Except when temporarily grouped homogeneously (i.e., all LEP), students remain in these groups throughout the lesson.

1. Teacher explains to whole class that the topic of study will be colonialism, past and present. Asks students in teams in Roundrobin structure to share words they associate with the word colonialism. Has one member of each team share team's responses with nearby team.

2. Teacher uses direct instruction to provide background information on the colonial process with Great Britain and India as an example.

Students form dyads on their team and use Three-Step Interview to determine what they know already about the two countries. One dyad takes India, the other Great Britain. Dyads share with team members. Teams share with the class.

Teacher lays groundwork for later student research by modeling various strategies he or she used to prepare lessons: reading textbooks, consulting encyclopedias, interviewing colleagues, watching films, and reading novels, newspapers, and news magazines.

Teacher also models for later activities by focusing on key concepts related to colonialism: geography, reasons for colonialism, positive and negative effects of colonialism, and current effects of the colonial process.

3. To see colonialism from both countries' point of view, the teacher uses Corners, asking students to choose which country they would like to have lived in during the colonial period.

Labels one corner of the room "Great Britain" and another "India." Tells students to imagine themselves as a 25-year-old man or woman and ask themselves which country they would like to have lived in during the colonial period. Students first write their choice on a slip of paper, then move to the appropriate corner.

After moving to their corner, students form dyads and tell their partner why they chose their country. Individual students then go to the opposite corner, form a new dyad, and use Paraphrase Passport for exchanging reasons for their choices.

4. Based on the case study of Great Britain and India, the teacher explains that in a few days students in their teams will research the colonial relationship between two other countries of their choice. Possible countries for research will be discussed in Phase II. Team presentations will be on these two countries. Individual student's mini-topics will be developed from the research that each student chooses to employ.

To prepare for their research, students on teams use Group Discussion to list various research strategies: interviews, encyclopedia, computer, library, newspapers, and so forth. Recorder lists strategies on one sheet of paper.

This lesson assumes that students have had previous experience in using various resources to find out new information. If not, the teacher may need to give students some background experience or information before continuing with the activities in this unit.

Teams then use Roundtable to identify what each team member's preferred strategy is in doing research for the team. Team members pass sheet around group, and each student writes his or her name next to favorite strategy. Teams then agree on research strategies that each member may employ. For example,

student #1 might take interview, #2 encyclopedia, #3 the course text, and #4 newspapers and news magazines. Students may use more than one strategy. Students will then use these strategies for mini-topic research in Phase II. Depending on the specific topic they choose, they may need to change their strategy.

Teacher should observe the LEP students to determine if they are following the assignment and selecting a research strategy that is appropriate for their language level. The Bilingual Facilitator should be supporting LEP students in the group. Teacher encourages LEP students to review materials and conduct research in their native language if possible.

5. Teacher asks teams to use Group Processing to discuss how well they worked together. They might think about or write answers to the following questions, then discuss their answers with their teammates.

How did I participate?
How did I share?
How did I listen?
How did I help?
How did I receive help?

Teacher encourages students to resolve any conflicts within their teams before bringing them to the teacher.

It is important in Co-Op Co-Op to work from class-level to team-level to individual activities so that students see how class needs are met by teams and how teams support the needs of individuals.

PHASE II

In Phase II, teams select the countries and conduct research for their mini-topics. Mini-topics will be presented to team members. In Phase III, they will prepare team presentations to the whole class.

Lesson Design

Objectives

Academic: Apply research strategies to a particular assignment.
Analyze key concepts of colonialism related to a pair of countries.

Language: Learn language needed for presenting to team members.
Learn language associated with roles.
Organize and prepare mini-topics.

Social: Negotiate opposing positions.
Actively listen to other's ideas.
Help team members in preparing mini-topics.

Total Time for Phase II: 3-4 instructional periods

Instructional Plan

Students remain in their teams. If absences and attrition have resulted in the loss of Bilingual Facilitators or twins for any LEP students, teacher consults with the teams to determine if and how the issue should be resolved. Asks teams to decide on roles for each member that they think will facilitate their interaction: for example, active listener, mediator, encourager, checker.

Based on teams' selection of roles, teacher highlights appropriate language skills required to fulfill the role. This provides important support to all students, especially with limited English proficiency.

1. Teacher lists on the chalkboard several pairs of countries that have been or are presently in a colonial relationship; e.g., France and Vietnam, Japan and Korea, the United States and Puerto Rico, the United States and the Philippines, Portugal and Brazil, Spain and Mexico, Italy and Ethiopia, the Netherlands and Indonesia, Russia and Hungary, China and Tibet.

2. Use Spend-a-Buck to select a limited number of country pairs for the class to study. Since partner teams will be used (see below), the list of country pairs should number about five. This would allow for 10 teams of four to form five partner teams to study five country pairs. If representatives vote on too few country pairs, teacher asks teams to come up with ways to resolve the problem. If there is an odd number of teams, one team could be asked to divide one pair of countries between two dyads on the team. Each team discusses the pair it wants. Team representatives use Spend-a-Buck to vote on the countries on the chalkboard, four votes per team.

3. Teacher asks each team to find a partner team and form a group of eight. Partner teams must agree on one pair of countries that they will study and the country that each team will research. For example, Teams #1 and #2 might take the United States and Puerto Rico. Members of Team #1 conduct mini-topic research on the United States and Team #2 members do their research on Puerto Rico. After mini-topic research, Teams #1 and #2 co-present on the colonial relationship between the two countries.

4. Partner teams report to whole class on their decisions. If more than one partner team has chosen the same country pair, teacher asks teams to resolve the overlap. Teacher should be prepared to suggest additional Team Building in order to support the teams in resolving conflicts.

5. Mini-topic Research. After consensus is reached on countries selected by the paired partner teams, each team does mini-topic research on its country. Teacher reminds students to concentrate research on the key concepts related to colonialism:

a) Geographical aspects: location, population, religions, values, politics.
b) Reasons for colonization: need for resources, war, political conflict.

c) Positive and negative effects of colonization.
d) Current effects of the colonial process.

Teacher can provide additional guidance, if necessary, for mini-topic research by having team members design advanced organizers such as lists of questions to answer, based on the key concepts above, during the mini-topic research. Depending on the mini-topic they choose, students may need to change the research strategy that they selected in Phase I.

Teacher observes team activities to determine if LEP students are receiving adequate support. After mini-topics are selected, LEP students from the same language group may be paired or grouped together so that they can help each other in their native language in preparing advanced organizers, designing research strategies, identifying resources, and better understanding concepts. LEP students from different language backgrounds may be grouped together and helped directly by the teacher or peer tutors.

6. After completing their research, individual students prepare oral presentations of their mini-topics to team members. LEP students may return to homogeneous group to give or receive help with their presentations.

7. Mini-topic Presentations. Students form same partner teams as when they chose country pairs. Individual students make mini-topic presentations to partner team members. Students with limited English oral skills may make their presentations with the assistance of a Bilingual Facilitator. Students assume the roles they selected earlier so that interaction is improved.

8. Students use Group Processing to discuss how well they worked as a team in completing and presenting their mini-topics. Teacher reminds students to focus on positive feedback that identifies what team members did to help each other learn more about the pair of countries.

9. Individuals turn in mini-topic reports to teacher for review and evaluation. Individual students and teacher negotiate on the format of the report so that it is appropriate to the student's level. For example, students with good writing skills in English may turn in a written report; LEP students with limited writing skills may submit an outline with notes, tapes of interviews, or lists of reading materials. Teacher evaluates how well the reports reflect the key concepts related to colonialism.

PHASE III

In Phase III, partner teams present a synthesis of their mini-topic research to the whole class. The team presentation is what has been called the Benchmark Product for the unit: that is, the culmination of the students' understanding of concepts that were presented and recycled in the previous lessons.

Lesson Design

Objectives

Academic: Organize and synthesize information into a coherent whole.
Explain concept of colonialism and historical and contemporary issues related to it.
Give feedback on presentations.

Language: Use language appropriate for large-group presentations.

Social: Negotiate opposing positions.
Give evaluative feedback.

Total Time for Phase III: 5 instructional periods

Instructional Plan

1. Whole class uses Brainstorming to generate key questions that students have about colonialism. This gives teams ideas for how to plan their presentations to meet the needs of their peers: for example, definition of colonialism, causes of colonialism, effects of the colonial relationship on the people, current effects of colonialism on the countries.

Brainstorming may also be used with the class to come up with a variety of modes that teams could choose from for their presentations: debate, displays, demonstrations, skits, and team-led discussions. Brainstorming is made effective when participants (a) refrain from evaluating each other's responses, (b) accept all ideas, no matter what one may think of them, and (c) build on each other's ideas. It may help to assign individual students to monitor how well each of these criteria is followed during the Brainstorming activity.

2. Partner teams select the content and the mode for their presentation. The content should integrate material from their mini-topics and respond to the issues generated earlier by the class.

Individual students take responsibility for parts of the presentation. Students should be discouraged from presenting their individual mini-topics. The team presentation should be a synthesis of what members learned from their own work and from each other, with each team member having a unique role.

The class should use a variety of modes in their presentations. If several teams choose the same mode, teams should resolve the overlap.

Teacher should check to see that the team's mode of presentation makes appropriate adaptations, if necessary, for LEP students. LEP students may be given the option to use visual aids, demonstrations, and drama that do not depend heavily on oral language facility in English. Further, if LEP students are having other difficulties, teacher may wish to use homogeneous LEP groups or twins, as in Phase II, to give additional assistance.

3. Partner teams prepare their presentations. Teacher encourages team members to help each other prepare for the presentation. Positive interdependence between partner teams is developed since the success of the presentation is linked to the two teams' working together.

4. Benchmark Product. Partner teams present to whole class. The teams have full use of the classroom and its facilities for presenting. Teacher encourages teams to involve members of the class in a question/answer session for part of presentation. Encourages members of the class to use effective listening and participation skills to help the partner teams.

5. Following each presentation, class members give positive feedback on how the partner teams helped the class improve its understanding of colonialism. Teacher uses academic objectives in the Lesson Design for each Phase to help guide this discussion. Teacher and students draw attention to strategies that may be useful to other teams.

For more formal feedback, teacher may have individual partner team members comment on each other's contribution to the team effort. For more structure, teacher could ask team members to comment on the social skills that were emphasized throughout the unit. For example, team members could express what they appreciated about each member's contributions during the unit. For more on group and individual feedback processes and materials, see Kagan, 1991.

6. If the teacher plans to form new teams for the next unit, it is suggested that each team be given an opportunity to complete any unfinished business and end the experience on a positive note. The following is an adaptation of a procedure for ending groups suggested by Johnson and Johnson (1987). Ask teams to discuss questions like the following:

a) Are there any unresolved issues? Does anything need to be discussed further?

b) What are some of our most successful accomplishments? How has each of us changed?

c) What feelings do we have about our group's breaking up?

d) Tell each team member something that you appreciated about his or her participation on the team.

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Appendix

Coaching Instrument for Cooperative Learning

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The Coaching Instrument for Cooperative Learning summarizes the essential characteristics of effective cooperative learning methods. It is designed to give teachers and teacher trainers a tool for understanding the characteristics and implementing them in the classroom. It is primarily intended for use in coaching activities among staff following staff development in cooperative learning. It should not be used for evaluating an individual staff member's ability to use cooperative learning. The following is a brief account of the characteristics, a description of the instrument, and a list of selected references on cooperative learning.

Cooperative Learning

Since the 1970s, cooperative learning methods have been used successfully to improve academic and social outcomes in classrooms. As an alternative to traditional, individualistic, competitive structures, these methods provide students with opportunities not only to master subject matter but also to develop positive social skills that are necessary in everyday life.

Cooperative learning takes place when students work together in small heterogeneous teams in order to accomplish individual or group goals. Groups are usually comprised of two to five individuals, with students providing fellow members with optimal opportunities to build team spirit and to participate in assigned activities. Teams are as heterogeneous as possible, based on academic achievement, race, sex, and so forth, so that students benefit from each other's knowledge and experiences.

Success in cooperative learning is dependent on both cooperative task structures and cooperative reward structures. Task structures should promote interdependence among team members. Interdependence is established when each team member's contribution is essential to complete the activity. Cooperative reward structures ensure that the efforts of individual students contribute to the rewards of others. Students' efforts should result in rewards to fellow team members (team-based rewards), as well as to members of other teams (class-based rewards).

Team building activities are essential in cooperative learning in order to facilitate communication and group process skill development among team members. These activities help students overcome individual and interper-

sonal problems that may arise as they work together on academic tasks. As teams in a classroom set out on assigned tasks, competition among the teams easily develops. "Our team" sentiments can become pre-eminent over those of "our class." Class building activities are useful in extending acquaintanceship and positive social efforts beyond the boundaries of individual teams.

Properly structured, cooperative groups allow students to learn subject matter and positive social skills simultaneously. Positive social skill development is promoted by giving students opportunities to observe and practice social skills that serve to facilitate group tasks: for example, active listening, conflict resolution, and checking for understanding. Students should be given opportunities to provide feedback to peers regarding the development of those cooperative skills that facilitate the group process.

Keeping small groups of students on task requires the use of special management skills by the teacher. The teacher needs to think through each day's schedule of cooperative activities in advance, anticipate possible breakdowns, and develop strategies for supporting the students' acquisition of academic and cooperative skills. Transforming the traditional competitive classroom into one that includes cooperative learning requires a great deal of training, commitment, and perseverance by the teacher. The potential rewards, however, include improved academic achievement and positive social development.

Coaching Instrument for Cooperative Learning

The Coaching Instrument for Cooperative Learning is designed primarily for use in staff development on cooperative learning. It provides an overview of the essential elements of formal cooperative learning methods. Although there are many kinds of cooperative learning methods, most of them have these principal elements.

Formal methods, such as Jigsaw, Student Teams–Achievement Divisions, and Co-Op Co-Op, involve the sustained coordination of cooperative activities over several weeks of instruction in one or more content areas. Informal methods, such as Group Discussion and Brainstorming, on the other hand, are used on a short-term, often intermittent basis. The focus of this instrument, however, is to help teachers implement formal cooperative methods.

Effective implementation of any formal cooperative learning method is based on the use of characteristics that are grouped under the four main categories in the instrument: Team Formation, Team Building, Task and Reward Structures, and Management. These elements have been addressed generally in the preceding section and are described in detail in the bibliography at the end of this document.

It would not be likely to see all of these elements in use in any one class period, or perhaps even in a week of classes. Kindergarten teachers, for example, may engage students in team formation, team building, and informal cooperative activities for several weeks, perhaps an entire year, before imple-

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menting formal cooperative methods. Students in a junior high school science class may participate in several formal cooperative activities without discussing the social skills that they will eventually utilize for long-term collaboration. Developing and processing social skills are essential elements of cooperative learning; however, they may not be included in every instructional activity or lesson. Thus, an observer should not expect to see every element in the instrument during a single observation. Rather, these elements unfold over a sustained period of implementing formal methods.

Effective staff development includes classroom follow-up to lectures, discussions, and demonstrations. Successful use of cooperative learning strategies in the classroom depends on there being ample and repeated opportunities for the teacher to practice the strategies. Many teacher in-service programs have recognized the need to assure practice and feedback opportunities by utilizing a coaching model. (See Los Angeles County Office of Education, 1980, for an example of peer coaching in staff development.)

To improve the teachers' facility to learn new techniques within a coaching model, it is important that a clearly non-evaluative relationship be fostered between the classroom teacher and the coach. In using the instrument, it is important that the coach and the teacher establish a trusting relationship and that coaching be completely separated from supervisory responsibilities.

One of the important uses of this instrument is in observing and coaching teachers who are trying cooperative learning methods in their classes. The format of the instrument is designed for simple coding. If the element is observed, a check is placed under "Y"; if it is not observed, "N" is checked; "?" is checked if the element is not appropriate for this particular observation or if extensive comments on the element are made at the end of the form. Several items include multiple criteria. If one or more of the criteria is met, the observer should check "Y" and then check within the item which of the criteria was observed.

The beginning and end of the form indicate the date and time for the preconference and post-conference of the observation/coaching process. It is important that the observer and teacher follow an established protocol and meet before the observation in order to establish the academic, linguistic, and social goals of the lesson and the element(s) that will be the focus of the observation. Because of the large number of elements in the instrument, it is important to limit the scope of each observation. As was pointed out earlier, one would not expect to see all of the characteristics present during any single observation. Eventually, however, over a sustained period of implementing formal cooperative methods, all of the elements should be observed and included in lessons.

Following the observation, the discussion between teacher and observer concentrates on these elements and the goals for the next lesson or observation. This discussion should lead naturally into planning the next lesson, especially in light of the feedback on the prior lesson.

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COACHING INSTRUMENT FOR COOPERATIVE LEARNING

Teacher _____ Room _____ Time _____

Subject Area: _____

Lesson Objectives: academic _____

language _____

social _____

KEY: Y = observed (✓) N = not observed (✓) ? = needs comment (✓) or not applicable (NA)

Team Formation

Y	N	?	
_	_	_	a. Teams are comprised of _____ members. (Specify number.)
_	_	_	b. Teams are heterogeneous based on ( ) academic achievement, ( ) ethnic background, ( ) sex, and where appropriate, ( ) language proficiency. (Check as applicable.)

Team Building

Y	N	?	
_	_	_	a. Teammates participate in *Team Building* activities.
_	_	_	b. Teacher ( ) models, ( ) instructs, ( ) observes, and ( ) provides feedback on the positive social skills necessary for success in cooperative learning activities. (Check as applicable.)
_	_	_	c. Teacher provides each team with opportunities to evaluate the social skills that members are using during team activities.
_	_	_	d. Students ask each other for help in completing assignments.
_	_	_	e. Students help each other to complete assignments.

Task and Reward Structures

Y	N	?	
_	_	_	a. Each student contributes to the team score.
_	_	_	b. Each student's contribution is essential for the completion of the team tasks.
_	_	_	c. ( ) Class, ( ) teams, and ( ) individuals are recognized for improved performance on assignments. (Check as applicable.)
_	_	_	d. Class-based rewards are dependent on successful cooperation among all teams.

Management

Y	N	?	
_	_	_	a. Students are engaged in a series of ( ) bite-sized, ( ) logically-sequenced activities. (Check as applicable.)
_	_	_	b. Individual students have a clear understanding of what outcomes are expected.
_	_	_	c. Teacher provides students with time to evaluate teammates' performance on assigned tasks.
_	_	_	d. Teacher provides students with time to evaluate other teams' performance on assigned tasks.
_	_	_	e. The teacher adapts activities to ensure that content is comprehensible to LEP students.
_	_	_	f. The teacher's management techniques result in each student's disciplined effort to achieve assigned tasks.

Comments:

Goals for next time:

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Cooperative Learning

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Daniel D. Holt, Editor

Effective instruction of students from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds includes opportunities for them to learn together with other students in their school. Cooperative learning methods offer significant opportunities for students to work together in positive and productive ways. This book provides teachers and teacher trainers with the theoretical rationale and practical strategies for creating successful group activities for students from diverse language backgrounds. It brings together two fields, cooperative learning and applied linguistics, to create optimal schooling experiences for all students.

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